ANCIENT KARNĀŢAKA

VOL. I

HISTORY OF TULUVA

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M.A., 1 D., (Lond. et Giessen)

Professor of Lastory

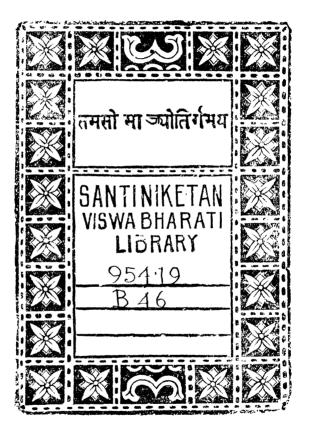
Sir Patashurambhau College, Poona

This work deals with one of the most ancient dynasties of western India. While almost all the other royal families of the south in one way or the other, were subject to political vicissitud s, the ancient Alupas of Tuluvanadu atone managed to preserve intact the culture and traditions of a people who played a very significant part in the history of the country. In this book which is based on all available historical materials, the author pays equal attention to the political as well as cultural histor /, religious life as las foreign rela of a vita part of ancient Karnataka which, unlike other previnces of the south, never suffered from Mahammadan invasion, and, hence, was in a reculiar position to hand down to poster of the unique and interesting history of its people. No account of southern and western India may be said to be con the with it reference bying me is to the splendid achies and of one brave Tuluvas of ane ent Kar du-

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Other works by the same Author

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- Social and Political Life in the Vijayanagara Empire. 2 Volumes. (Madras, 1934). Rs. 12.
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- 4. The Marātha Dominion in the Karnātaka. (In the Press).

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То

The beloved memory of my elder Brother

Bhavani Shanker

who inspired and guided me in this work, but was snatched away before its completion

PREFACE

In the following pages the history of a province which till now has remained practically unknown, has been brought to light for the first time with the help of all available historical materials. This province of Tuluva, now represented by the South Kanara district of the Madras Presidency and the greater part of the North Kanara district of the Bombay Presidency, has ever remained an integral part of the Karnāṭaka, with political relations with almost all the royal families that ruled over the southern and western parts of the Peninsula.

The dynasty that ruled ever Tuluvanādu was never an imperial house; but imperial families alone have not always contributed either to the political or cultural greatness of the country. Royal families of minor states have in a great measure, especially in the Karnātaka, helped to preserve our ancient heritage and history. This is the reason why, instead of beginning the ancient history of the Karnāṭaka with the Satavahanas and the Mauryas, I have prefaced it with the annals of the Alupas whose interesting history dates back to the second century A. D., and whose district preserved in tact the language and culture of the Karnātaka when they were threatened with admixture in the other parts of the province. One of the reasons why this ancient dynasty was able to hand down to posterity the culture of the Tulu and the Karnātaka people, is because of the fact that its province never suffered from the invasions of the Muhammadans. whose onrush proved so disastrous to the stability of numerous states in the western and southern parts of the country.

The history of my district has been studied from five points of view. In the first chapter, dealing with the Legendary Beginnings, I have attempted to place Tuluva on the background of the legends of the whole of the western part of India. The second and the third chapters deal only with the domestic and foreign relations of the Alupa rulers, based entirely on their own stone and copper-plate inscriptions as

well as on those of their neighbours the Karnātaka and Tamil monarchs. Tuluva tradition as embodied in a work called Grāmapaddhati, which is introduced to scholars for the first time, is incorporated in the fourth chapter styled Village Organization. Religion forms the next topic of my study, based again on epigraphs, literature, and Tuluva and non-Tuluva tradition. And, finally, the life of the Tulu people gleaned exclusively from their admirable folk-songs called the Pādadānas, brings the work to a close. In the first appendix I have given a tentative rendering into Kannada of the passages found in the Greek Farce, improved and verified since my earlier rendering of the same in 1926 when I had, at his own request, sent Mahāmahopādhvāva Dr. R. Shama Sastry, then Director of Archaeological Researches Mysore, these passages put into Kannada. A comparative list of the many households of Tuluva, as found in the different versions of the Grāmapaddhati, is the second appendix; and the third contains a genealogical account of all the Alupa kings discovered till now.

Notwithstanding my continual and personal investigations in the various parts of the district, I find that I have made but a beginning in the direction of writing a complete history of the Tuluva people. These pages, therefore, form only a preliminary study of this ancient and hitherto unexplored province. Since sending the Ms. to the press, I have secured through the kind exertion of wellwishers and friends various Mss. which, should there be an occasion in the near future, I shall amply utilize in the next edition of the work. I have deliberately omitted some phases of the history of Tuluva, which will be dealt with in a later dissertation. This work forms the first of a series of five volumes which propose to deal with the history of Ancient Karnāṭakā from earliest times till the downfall of the Western Cālukyas.

I have abstained from giving a bibliography, as I have cited almost all authorities with the necessary details in the footnotes. All the works utilized in my work are available at the Oriental Book Agency, Poona.

My obligations and gratefulness are due to quite a number of persons: Mr. K. N. Dikshit, M.A., Deputy Director-General of Archaeology, Simla, who was good enough to ask the Superintendent of Archaeology, Southern Circle, to send me the transcripts of the following unpublished stone inscriptions found in Tuluva Nos. 372 and 419 of 1927-28, 485, 488, 490, 491, 509 and 526 of 1928-29; Pandit Venkatadāsa Ācārva and Pandit Kannārakuduru Bhatta Rāmakṛṣṇayya, both of Udipi, who spared no pains either to accompany me in my tours in the district, or to assist me in procuring Mss., or to supply me with all the data I wanted; Mr. S. L. Kapadi, Librarian of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society who, with his ever-obliging Assistants, made it possible for me to recast completely an earlier version of this work, during the spring of 1934; Mr. V. Ganesh Sunder Rao of Udipi and Mr. M. Sunder Row, B.A., L. T., of Mangalore, who have lent me some of their photographs; my brother Mr. G. N. Saletore, B. A., who copied for me a fine version of the Grāmapaddhati hailing from Udipi; Mr. K. R. Shetty of Udipi, who has drawn an excellent map of Tuluva for me; my wife who has prepared the index; Vidyāsudhākara Dr. Har Dutt Sharma who has gone through some of the proofs and offered me his learned advice; Mr. S. R. Sardesai whose careful execution of the work merits all praise; and Dr. N. G. Sardesai whose kindness and generosity make it possible for this work to appear in print.

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B. A. S.

CONTENTS

Chapter]	Page
I	Legendary Beginning	(S	•••		1
II	The Alupa Dynasty •	٠	•••		57
III	Foreign Relations				195
IV	Village Organization	•••	•••	•••	296
V	Religion	•••	•••		368
VI	Life in Early Tuluva				459
	Appendix A	• •	• • •		
	The Greek Farce with	h Old	Kannada Pa	assages	584
	Appendix B		•••	• • •	
	Households in the Th	irty- t	wo Grāmas	ο f	
	Tu]uva		•••		598
	Appendix C		•••		
	Ālupa Genealogical T	'able	•••		618
	Index		•••		621
	Map			Frontis	piece
	Illustrations				•

ERRATA

Page	Line	For	Read
33	13	dharaṇī-bhūvar	dharaṇī-devar
40	28	XL .	XLI
45	13	or Tuluva	of Tuluva
59	14	samabhṛtyatām	samambhṛtyatām
68	13	of Bhatarikula	of the Bhaṭārikula
,,	18	f A ļuka	Aluka and
71	21	in village	the village
124	2	1256	1236
127	8	Oddamadeva	Oḍḍamadeva,
169	13	Soyideva Ālupen	Soyideva Alup-
		drađeva I	endradeva
205	9	Malyaladeśa	Malayāļadeśa,
222	8	Mārasrava	Mārasarva
249	14	Pāṇḍyas	Pāṇḍavas
253	22	Rācmalla I	Rācmalla II
322	22	branch	Branch
344	19	Śaka 74	Saka 742
382	20	Sambu	Śambhu
393	9	Kandukā Devī	Kundakā Devī
474	14	Deyi Badiyedi	Dēyi Baidyedi
485	Footn	ote I. A.	I. A. XXIII

ANCIENT * KARNĀŢAKA

voi. i

HISTORY OF TULUVA

ANCIENT KARNĀTAKA

VOL. I HISTORY OF TULUVA

CHAPTER I

LEGENDARY BEGINNINGS

Summary: Derivation of the word Tuluva with the aid of historical and traditional evidence. 2. Tuluva in the legend of Paraśurāma. Historical and traditional notices of the story of Paraśurāma. 3. Examination of the story relating to the alleged creations of Paraśurāma. 4. The veracity of that part of the above story relating to the Sapta Końkanas examined. 5. References to Tuluva in the epics and the Purāṇas. 6 Claims of Tuluva to antiquity based on epigraphs, writings of Tamil authors, and accounts of Greek geographers.

1. DERIVATION OF THE WORD TULUVA

Ancient Tuluva comprised the whole of South Kanara and a part of North Kanara. The misnomer of Canara was applied to the district only in comparatively modern times.¹ Tuluva² today is nearly 150 miles in

^{1.} Wilks called Tuluva by the name Canara. Historical Sketches of the South of India, I., p. 8 (1810); I., p. 5 (1869). Read also Buchanan, A Journey through Mysore, Canara and Malabar III. p. 201. Caldwell explains how this name Canara was misapplied to this part of western India. A Comparative Grammar of Dravidian Languages, p. 6, n. (1856).

^{2.} Sturrock, South Canara Manual I., p. 1.

length, about twenty-five miles broad in its narrowest and fifty miles in its widest parts. But according to traditional as well as historical accounts, this province extended far beyond its modern limits in the north. The legendary origin of Malabar as embodied in the Keralotpatti relates that the Tuluva-raiva commenced from Gokarna in the north as far as Perumpula in the south.1 From the evidence of inscriptions to which we shall advert in the course of this treatise, it will be seen that the northern limits of Tuluva as given in the legendary accounts of Kerala. are by no means unreliable. In fact, so late as the sixteenth century A.D., the people associated the land south of Mirjan, situated on an islet south of Ankola, on the Gangavadi river, with Tuluva, 2 But the name Tuluva came gradually to be restricted to a smaller area till with the annexation of the district by the British in A.D. 1799, it was confined to a stretch of land bordered on the north by the forest line of Sirūr and on the south by the town of Caravattūru.

The origin of the word Tuluva remains still a difficult question. According to tradition the name Tuluva is traced to the activities of a ruler called Bhoja Rāja, also known as Candraśekhara. It is said that in order to please the Brahmans, he gave them

^{1.} Wilson, The Mackenzic Collections, p. 28. Cf. Padmanabha Menon, History of Kerala, pp. 48-9 (1924). Another version of the same work says that the southern boundary of Tuluva was the Kanniorottu river, south of Kavai. Buchanan, op. cit., III., p. 8.

^{2.} Barbosa, Duarte, A Description of the Coasts of East Africa and Malabar, etc. I. p. 184, n. 2. (Dames, London, 1918).

munificent gifts like the tulā-puruṣa-dāna, the tulā-dāna, etc. Since he presented to the Brahmans, who had come from different provinces, gold weighing one hundred tolas each, he was called Tulābhāra, Tulā Rāja, and Tulā Deśādhipati, and the people over whom he ruled, the Tulu people. Further, the dynasty to which he belonged came to be known as the Tolār line.

Keraļa legends ascribe the name Tuļuva to one Tulumbhan Perumāļ. This ruler, it is alleged, fixed his residence at Koteśvara, a prominent Saivite seat in the northern part of Tuļuva, just before Keraļa was separated from Tuļuva. The country was thenceforward called after his name.²

Sturrock merely echoes the opinion of others that the word Tuluva could be traced to the word tulu, meaning mild, humble, meek, etc.³

None of these explanations can be given any credence. We may dismiss the last one as being inadmissible both on historical and philological grounds. In the first place, the achievements of the Tulu people in historical times, as we shall presently narrate, bring out clearly a trait in the character of the early Tuluvas quite opposite to the one which is indicated by the ingenious explanation offered by Sturrock. Moreover, there is no evidence to prove that the word Tulu,—which is not in common use, as

^{1.} Cf. Srinivasa Hegde, Daksina Kannada Jilleya Caritre mattu Bhūtāla Pāndya rāyana Aliya Kattu, pp. 44-45. (Mangalore, 1913).

^{2.} Sturrock, S. C. Manual, I., p. 2.

^{3.} Sturrock, ibid; Brigel, Tulu-English Dictionary, q. v.

Sturrock rightly remarked,—was ever current among the Tulu people themselves; and that they called the country which they inhabited by a name signifying a feature in their character which they did not possess. Turning to the other two explanations, we may note that the story of Rāma Bhoja's munificence was evidently an invention of the Brahmans; while that of Tulumbhan Perumāl, whose identity itself is a matter of speculation, was the result of confusion between the legends of Tuluva and those of Kerala.¹

The word Tuluva may be derived from the Hale Kannada verbal root $t\bar{u}|u$, to attack, signifying thereby the nature of the ancient Tuluva people whose warlike activities in the early ages of history secured for them that appellation from their neighbours, the equally or perhaps more ancient Karnāṭaka people. Evidence in support of this may be secured from their folk-lore, traditions, faith, games and political history. The stirring sagas called Pāḍadānas contain their folk-lore; and these describe, as we shall prove in the later part of this treatise, the activities of gallant men and women whose memories are even now cherished with legitimate pride and affection by the Tulu people.

^{1.} The unhistoricity of the derivation of the name Tulu from Tolāra is seen when we note that the earliest variant of the name is Tolāha and not Tolāra. This name Tolāha appears in an Ālupa record dated A.D. 1140-41. 176 of 1901. The Perumāļs themselves were foreigners. Read Logan, Malabar Gazetteer, pp. 230, 244.

^{2.} Cf. Kittel, Kannada-English Dicty., p. 738.

The traditions of the Koragars, some of whom seem to have formed a part of the Tulu people, the Mailars, the Holevas, the Mogers, and others, justify our assumption that they belonged to a warlike race. The traditions of the Koragars, for example, eulogize the deeds of a powerful Koragas king named Hubāśika and of his nephew. We shall refer to them later on in the course of this treatise. The legendary account of the Holeyas as recorded in a narrative called Bahudanda. cited by Buchanan, relates that a ruler who belonged to that tribe seized upon the country. In the same account we are told that the Mogers, who now form the bulk of the fisher-folk of Tuluva, assisted the Holevas. It is believed that the Mailars (Mallars?) were the rulers of the country. Ruined forts at Maddur, four miles to the north-north-east of Kasargodu, and at Kavu, thirty-five miles to the north-east of the same town,2 bear witness to the olden times when the war-like Tulu people had conquered the country.

Ample evidence can be gathered from their games in order to establish their claims for martial activities in the past. Sports like ajakāyi-dervuni, tappangāyi, the ambōḍi jātrā, kōrida-jūju, tūṭe-dāra, keḍḍasa festival, ceṇḍu, and bōṇṭe—these are the survivals of the far-off times when the militant Tuļu people wrested the ownership of the land from the hands of the aboriginal inhabitants.

^{1.} On the Koragars, read Saletore, The Wild Tribes in Indian History, p. 43. (Lahore, 1935)

^{2.} Sewell, Lists of Antiquarian Remains in the Madras Presidency I. pp. 238-239. (Madras, 1882)

Ajakā yi-derpuni is a favourite game among the Billavars and the Bunts. It is a contest between two persons who hold cocoanuts in their palms at a distance of about twelve to fourteen inches, and bring the fruits one against the other simultaneously. In this game the broken fruit is the property of the victor. The tappangā yi is a game which is played in the open in front of a household. A cocoanut shorn of its fibres and well smeared with oil, is thrown into the air. A scramble follows at a given signal among those present—the javanere, as the youth of the locality are called,—and the strongest retains it in his hands as a sign of victory. This game is common among all classes of people.

But the ambōḍi jātrā is a pastime which is seen only among the Holeyas. It is held at Ermāļ, Udayāvara (near Uḍipi), and Baḷḷamañje. The ambōḍi jātrā is a mock fight with staves about three, some times six, feet in length representing swords, between two parties. The kōrida-jūju or cock fight is indulged in by all classes of people except the Brahmans and the Jains. We have described it elsewhere in detail. An equally interesting and universal game is the ceṇḍu or a sort of foot ball played during the famous jātrā at Poḷali. It is held on the occasion of the car festival which takes place on the Mīna Śaṅkramaṇa, in the famous Rājarāje-śvarī Durgā Parameśvarī temple. Popular belief con-

^{1.} Saletore, The Quarterly Journal of the Mythic Society, XVII, pp. 316-327.

nects the play (cendu) with the heads of the daityas named Canda and Munda.¹

More interesting than the above is the torch fight called tūte-dāra which is best seen in the Bappanādu grāma, a suburb of Mūlki, Mangalore tāluka. It is held at night in front of the Duzga Parameśvari temple at Bappanādu. Only two rival parties take part in it: the people of Bappanādu and those of Kārnādu. The latter are led by the Gundal household (manetana); while those of Karnādu, by the Bālehittalu and the Nādi Kuduru people. Each party consists of seventy to ninety men. They are stationed at a distance of about fifty feet. Torches of cocoanut leaves about two and a half to three feet in length, are prepared by the Holeyas of the respective villages. The combatants are expected to have taken a ceremonial bath and to have abstained from drinking liquor and eating meat. Every combatant has two to three torches at his disposal. At a given signal, the men of the Kambalasana light a torch and give it to the leader of the Bappanadu grama. Likewise a man from the Māgandādisāna gives a lighted torch to the Karnadu people. On a second signal being given, the two parties throw other the lighted torches. The game lasts for about fifteen minutes when the leaders of both parties end it. We are unable to determine the significance of this interesting and unique Tuluva game.

^{1.} Cf. Hegde, Ceritre, p. 258.

An equally noteworty sport of the Tulu people is the hunting excursion on the keddasa days. This game is common to all the people and is held over the whole of the district. The keddasa festival begins, according to some, on the 24th of the Tulu month of Māyi (February-March), or according to others, on the 25th of Makara (i. e., on or about the 5th of February), and lasts for three days. It is held, according to the popular conception, to commemorate Mother Earth's purification. All the Tulu people suspend work on these days, and go a-hunting boars, rabbits and wild pigeons. Food prepared out of baked kudu or horse gram (dolichos uniflorus) and rice is eaten during these three days.

The term $b\bar{o}nte$ (Kannada $b\bar{e}te$) is given to an ordinary hunting expedition conducted on a large scale by the chieftains of a locality. How heartily the Tuluva chieftains conducted the $b\bar{o}nte$ will be seen when we shall describe the life of the people.

The whole trend of events from early centuries of the Christian era down to the sixteenth century, and especially the rise of an indigenous principality which rested solely on the strength of Tuluva arms and which

^{1.} The term keddasa is also given to the change in the direction of the wind. The north-easter which begins to blow in February-March is called the keddasa-gāli. The keddasa excursion of Tuluva may be compared to the annual hunting festivals of the Hos of Chota Nagpur, the Ahaira of the Rajputs, the Munda rite, and the Sitale festivals of the tribes in Bihar. Read, Hastings, Encyl. of Religion and Ethics, V. p. 20. B. A. S.

lasted till the fourteenth century attest to the warlike nature of the Tuluva people in historical times. One significant phrase used in inscriptions in connection with them, as will be given in detail when we shall deal with the political history of the province, viz., that hostile rulers were like a submarine fire to the ocean the Tuluva army (Tuluva bala-jaladhi-badavānalam), adds to the testimony that is decidedly in favour of the early Tuluvas being considered as a people of aggressive habits.

2. TULUVA IN THE LEGEND OF PARAŚURĀMA

Tuluvanādu, or as it was known in early times Ālvakheda, was a unit by itself since the earliest ages, both according to tradition as well as history. It is entirely erroneous to assume with the compiler of the South Canara Manual that no definite historic record relating to South Kanara has been found of earlier date than the eighth or ninth century A. D., and that "it must certainly at one time have formed part of Keraļa. or Chera," the westernmost of the three ancient Dravidian kingdoms mentioned in the Edicts of Emperor Aśoka. An enquiry into the origin of Tuluva as an independent unit brings us to the description of the personality and achievements of one of the most remarkable figures known to Hindu tradition. This was

^{1.} Only once is it called Tuluva-vişaya in a later record. 136 of the Epigraphical Report of the S. Circle for 1901; South Indian Inscriptions, VII, No. 327, p. 178.

^{2.} Sturrock, S. C. Manual, I. p. 54.

the famous Jāmadagnya, or Paraśurāma, as he was known more popularly, to whom is ascribed the existence of Tuluva as a separate historic province.

The story of Jāmadagnya, or Rāma, as he is called in the Mahabharata, briefly told is the following: -Once king Kārtavīrya, also known as Sahasrabāhu Arjuna, because he had been endowed with a thousand arms by Dattātreya,-ruler of the Haihava tribes with his capital at Māhismatī, came to the hermitage of Jamadagni. He was received by Renuka. wife of the great Rsi, with all due respect. But Kārtavīrya, filled with the pride of his valour, in return to her hospitality carried off along with him by violence the calf of the milch cow of the sacred oblations and cast down the tall trees surrounding the hermitage. Bhargava, on being told by his father about the cow, killed the king. The sons of Kārtavīrya revenged the death of their father by attacking the hermitage of Jamadagni, and slaying the old Rsi when Rāma was away.

Rāma in sorrow vowed to extirpate the whole Kṣatriya race. He killed the sons of Kārtavīrya, and thrice seven times cleared the earth of the Kṣatriya caste; and with their blood filled the five large lakes of Samantapañcaka, from which he offered oblations to the race of Bhṛgu. Here he saw his sire once again; and on being told by him what to do, Rāma offered a solemn sacrifice to the king of the gods, and presented the earth to the ministering priests. To Kaśyapa he gave the altar made of gold, ten fathoms in length and nine

in height. With the permission of Kaśyapa, the Brahmans divided it into pieces amongst themselves, and they were thenceforward called Khandavāyana Brahmans.

The story as told in the Rājadharma section of the S'ānti Parva adds that when Jāmadagnya had given the earth to Kaśyapa, the latter desired him to depart, as there was no dwelling place for him in it, and to repair to the seashore of the south. It was here that the Ocean relinquished to Rāma the maritime district of Surpāraka. It must be remembered that the Surpāraka region is distinctly said to be the creation of Paraśurāma. Thus in the S'ānti Parva:—

Tatah S'urpārakam des'am sāgarah tasya nirmame t Sahasā Jāmadagnyasya S'opārānte mahitalam u

With the above story which is narrated in the $Mah\bar{a}$ - $bh\bar{a}rata$ and repeated in the $Pur\bar{a}\eta as$, we may proceed with our narrative. Of all the versions of the story as given in the $Pur\bar{a}\eta as$, that narrated in the $Sahy\bar{a}drik\bar{a}\eta da$ of the $Sk\bar{a}nda$ $Pur\bar{a}\eta a$ has an intimate bearing on the history of Tuluva. The version in the $Sahy\bar{a}dri$ -

^{1.-2.} Cf. Saletore, Parasurāma in History and Legend. Paper read at the VII, All-India Oriental Conference, Baroda, 1933. Read also the Mahābhārata, Vana Parva, Sec. CXV, pp. 355-62; Šānti Parva, Sec. III pp. 6, seq; Viṣṇu Purāṇa, pp. 401-4, and 404, n (21); Matsya Purāṇa, Chs. XLII-XLIV. pp. 110-120. See also ibid, pp. 112-116. (Taluqdar); Agni Purāṇa, III. CCCXXVI. p. 1005. (Calcutta, 1903); ibid, Ch. IV, vv. 12 seq. pp. 4-5; Ch. V. v. 14, p. 5 (Poona 1900); Bhāgavata Purāṇa, Bk. IX. Ch. 18, pp. 62-65 (Calcutta, 1896); Padma Purāṇa, Vol. IV, Ch. 268, pp. 1847, seq. (Poona, 1894).

^{3.} Skānda Purāṇa, Uttarārdha, Ch. VI, v. 21, seq. p. 324, seq. (Ed. Gerson d'Cuhna, Pombay, 1877). Read also Schyādri-kāṇḍa Ch. I, V. 82, p. 304, on the Brahmans irritating the great hero.

kāṇḍa is substantially the same as that related above with the exception of a few details which will be examined presently.

The story of Parasurama dating back as it does to the times of the Rāmāvana and before, cannot be altogether dismissed as a fascinating fabrication of the fertile Brahman brains. Even at the risk of digressing a little from the main part of our narrative, we may be permitted to make a few observations concerning this great figure, especially as gathered from the writings of Hindu writers and epigraphical records. These notices, as we shall see at once, will help us to elucidate the alleged creation of Tuluva by Jāmadagnva. In the Mahābhārata itself we have a few places associated with the name and greatness of Parasurāma. Proceeding next to the mountain called Mahendra, we are told in that epic, inhabited (of yore) by Jāmadagnya, and bathing in Rāma's tīrtha, a person acquireth the merit of a horse-sacrifice.1 In the same work we are informed that after visiting the asylum of Sarabhanga, one should proceed to Surpāraka where Jamadagni's son had formerly dwelt. Bathing in that tirtha of Rāma, one acquireth the merit of giving:away gold in abundance.2 Dhaumya relates to Bharata further that in that same Surpāraka tīrtha are two sacrificial platforms of the illustrious Jamadagni, called Pāṣāna and Punascandra.3

The Mārkandeya Purāna informs us that along the northern half of the Sahya mountains is the region in

^{1-3.} Vana Parva, LXXXV, LXXXVIII, pp. 277, 279, 291.

which the Godāvarī flows and which is delightful even when compared with the whole world. And Govardhana is the charming city of the high-souled Bhārgava race.

References to Parasurama and his creations on the west coast are also found in the Raghuvains'a where Kālidāsa gives clear evidence of the legend having been current in about the fifth century A.D. While describing Raghu's march through the Sahva regions and Kerala, and the adjoining lands on the west coast, Kālidāsa savs that when Raghu's vast armies spread out in view of conquering the west, the sea though (at one time) sent back by the missiles of Paraśurāma now appeared as if touching it. Then, again, it is mentioned, continues the poet, that the ocean when entreated, gave space to Parasurāma; (the same ocean) now paid tribute to Raghu through the kings of the west. In a later context, Kālidāsa informs us that prince Pratipa having obtained the god of fire as an ally in battle, he considers the sharp edge of Paraśurāma's axe which is the very destructive night to the Kşatriyas to be no more than the petal of a lotus. While narrating the story of Parasurama himself. Kālidāsa informs us that he destroyed the Kṣatriyas twenty-one times.2

^{1.} Mārkaņdeya Purāņa, p. 310.

^{2.} Kālidāsa, Raghuvamisa IV. 53, 54, 58; VI. 42; XI. 66, 67. And ibid, 38-41 where the poet describes the activities of Kārtavirya Sahasrabāhu. (Bombay, 1916).

Allusions to the ruler of Māhiṣmatī, Sahasrabāhu Arjuna, and Paraśurāma are made by Bāṇa in his Kādambarī. A portress, who approaches king Śūdraka with some news, is thus described: like the blade of Paraśurāma's axe she held the circle of kings in submission. Then, again, the partot Vaiśampāyana relates how it saw the Śabara army coming out from the forests of the Vindhyas. It was like the stream of Narmadā tossed by Arjuna's thousand arms. While describing Candrāpīḍa's deftness in the use of arms, Bāṇa writes that his shafts, like those of Paraśurāma when the latter blazed to consume the forest of earth's royal stems, cleft only the highest peaks.

Even the account of a foreign writer of the sixteenth century A.D. contains echoes of the old legend. Duarte Barbosa thus remarked while writing about Tuluvanedu which he called Tulinat:—"And the Indians say that in former times all these low grounds were sea, which reached to the said range (i.e., the Western Ghats), and that in process of time the sea uncovered it, and swallowed it up in other parts, and to the foot of those mountains. There are many traces of things of the sea, and the low ground is very level like the sea, and the mountain chain is very craggy, and seems to rise to the heavens..."

^{1-3.} Bāṇa, Kādambarī, Purv. pp. 25-26, 109, 295 (Ed. by Śri Haridasą B. Siddhānta Vyāsa Bhaṭṭācārya, Calcutta, 1916); pp. 5-7, 21 61. (Ridding).

^{4.} Duarte Barbosa, A Portuguese, A Description of the Coasts of East Africa and Malabar, Etc. p. 84. (Stanley, London, 1865).

We have to come to the sixteenth century, therefore, in order to meet with people who ascribed the origin of the western coast, and with it the beginnings of the province the history of which forms the subject of our narrative, not to the doings of a remarkable personage but to a subterranean agency in some palaeolithic period which the ancients masked under the guise of a legend.

Nevertheless the achievements of Parasurama have been recorded in epigraphs ranging from the first quarter of the sixth century A.D. to the first quarter of the sixteenth century. The Ganga king Durvinita Kongunivrddha, who ascended the throne in A.D. 482, is called in the Nallala plates issued by himself and dated in his fortieth regnal year (i. e., A.D. 522-3), "an incarnation of Parasurama in the art of using astras, upastras, and other weapons." The Western Calukya ruler Vinavāditva Satvāśrava, son of Pulikeśin II, is praised thus in a record dated A.D. 692:—That he was reckoned to be an elephant-goad to kings like Parasurāma.2 This is repeated in an inscription of A.D. 694.3 Śrīpurusa Kongunivarma II, the Ganga king, is said in a record dated A.D. 749 to be in valour like the son of Jamadagni.4 This eulogy in regard to the same valiant monarch is

^{1.} Mysore Archaeological Report for 1924, p. 71. On the date of his accession, read Rice, Mysore and Coorg from the Inscriptions, pp. 5, 35.

^{2.} Epigraphia Carnatica, VIII. Sb. 571, p. 92.

^{3.} Ibid, XI., Dg. 66, p. 62.

^{4.} Ibid, VI. Mg. 36; p. 66.

repeated in A.D. 776 and again in A.D. 797. Even in the reign of the Ganga king Ereyappa Nītimārga II, an inscription dated A.D. 903 describes Śrīpuruṣa Pṛthvī Kongunivarma II to be in valour Jāmadagnya.

Rāiendra Cola Deva (A.D. 1016-A.D. 1064) is credited with the conquests of a great many forts and cities, and especially with the performance of a deed which is in all respects singular in the history of Parasurama. Inscriptions ranging from A.D. 1019 till about A.D. 1101 maintain that that great Tamil ruler conquered "many ancient islands securely guarded from time immemorial by the sea resounding with conches; and the crown of pure gold worthy of Laksmī, which Parasurāma, who in anger extirpated kings twenty-one times in battle, had deposited in the inaccessible Sandima (also called Śandima, and in one record Candimat) island, having considered it a secure place." 3 Cāndimat is a corruption of Santimat, or Santimanta; 4 and it may be identified with the island Santi mentioned in the Tulu Grāmapaddhati as having formed one of the seventy-seven islands which belonged to the Ghorastra on the western

^{1.} E. C., IV. Ng. 85, p. 135; My. Archl. Rept., for 1921, p. 20; E. C. IX., N1. 60, p. 40.

^{2.} E.C., X. K1. 90, p. 26.

^{3.} Ibid. X. Hl. 106 (a) p. 32; III. Nj. 134, p. 109; X. Kl. 44, p. 11; Nl. 7, p. 31; III. TN. 34, p. 74. Of these Nj. dated A. D. 1021 and TN. 34 dated A. D. 1074 relate that Paras'urāma raging with anger bound the kings twenty one times. See also Rice, Mysore Gaz., I. p. 334 (rev. ed.); My. & Coorg., p. 88.

^{4.} Dr. S. K. Aiyangar was kind enough to inform me that Cāndimat was probably the Tamil form for Sāntimanta. But about its location he was not certain. B. A. S.

coast of India. But no further details concerning this island are available either in history or legend.

Vinayāditya Satyāśraya was not the only Western Cālukya ruler whose warlike activities are associated with Paraśurāma. The famous Vikramāditya VI, more commonly called Tribhuvanamalla II, and Vikramāńka, who ascended the throne in A.D. 1073-4, is thus describted in a record dated A.D. 1077:—" the resoluteness of him who in order to destroy the Kṣatriyas in the earth slew the kings twenty-one times."

This remarkable achievement of Parasurāma is also connected with the rise of one of the feudatories of the same great Western Cālukya monarch. An inscription dated only in the 38th regnal year of the king Vikramāditya VI (i. e., in A.D. 1112) dealing with the origin of his feudatory Dadiga, son of king Gunda, of the Balitace and of the Bappura family, ruler over Kisukād, says the following:—"When Jāmadagnya came in the

^{1.} Srinivasa Hegde referring to a copy of the Grāmapaddhati said to have been in the possession of Palli Subbannācārva, enumerates the seventy-seven islands which formed a part of the Ghorāstra. Caritre, pp. 41-42. I cannot accept the description as valid because it is not mentioned in any other version of the Grāmapaddhati which I have secured from various parts of the district. Ghorāstra seems to have been a form of Go-rāstra, and is not met with anywhere in inscriptions. Of the seventy-seven islands only the following seem to be historical—Valalanka (i.e., a quarter of Mūlki), Uppin ikuduru, Hanuvaradvipa, Hatţikuduru and Babbukuduru. Excepting Hanuvaradvipa, which is another name for Honnāvūru, the others are still seen today in Tuluva. B. A. S.

^{2.} E. C., VII., Sk. 124, p. 97; Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Districts, p. 49 (1st ed.). Rice places the accession of Vikramādītya VI in A.D. 1076. My. & Coorg., p. 73.

course of his wanderings in which he destroyed the Kṣatriya race, there were born from the caves of mount Kiṣkindhā certain heroes from whom sprang the members of the Bali race, who are the ornaments of the Bappuras."

Viṣṇuvardhana Biṭṭiga Deva is thus praised in a record dated A.D. 1160:—To king Narasimhavarma, a Cola ruler, (he was) like an axe to a tree or Paraśurāma to Sahasrabāhu,-this wonderful king Viṣṇu became the destroyer a hundred times of Kṣatriyas.²

Rulers on the eastern coast too were associated with the name of Paraśurāma but this time it is with one of his singular characteristic features. The *Mahāmaṇḍales'vara* Koṇḍapadmaṭi Buddharājā, who belonged to the Śūdra caste, is called in A.D. 1171-2 a Paraśurāma (in keeping vows).³

But it is generally the monarchs of the Karnāṭaka and the western parts of India whose martial deeds reminded the people of the valour of Paraśurāma. Of the Kalacuriya king Rāyamurāri Soyi Deva, also called Soma, an inscription dated A.D. 1174 relates thus:—
"His guru Aśvatthāma causing with affection the moustaches and beard of that Soma to grow thick, as if for ornament, when Paraśurāma with a raging fire of

^{1.} Epigraphia Indica, XV. p. 106.

^{2.} Inscriptions at S'ravana Belgola, No. 138, p. 183 (1st ed.). Evidently this refers to the expulsion of the Colas from the Karnātaka country. See Rice, My. & Coorg., p. 99.

^{3.} E. I., VI. p. 273.

fury came to swallow up the kings, with great affection preserved him, and together with a sign (or crest) the name of Kalacuri to that family—this Isvarāmsa."

Vīra Narasimha II (A.D. 1220-1235) of the Hoysala dynasty, is described in a record date A.D. 1223, to be "stronger than Parasurāma." ¹²

The earlier story of Parasurāma having reclaimed the land is given in an inscription dated A.D. 1368 thus:—Having turned back the ocean and conquered the earth, the acme of might and liberality, the sole repository of fame, was Jāmadagnya who, slaying the Kṣatriyas that from enjoying the earth were filled with pride, made it as far as encircled by the ocean the possession of the Brahmans.³

Reminiscences of the pious deeds of Paraśurāma in Karnāṭaka as well as in the regions around it may now be mentioned. A defaced inscription dated A.D. 1538 of the times of the Vijayanagara monarch Acyuta Rāya, informs us that Paraśurāma had set up the image of the goddess Kōļāla in the punyakṣetra of Dahana Kōļāla, and that (in the same year) the name of that holy place was changed into Kōļāla Bhārgava. The god in the Venkaṭaramaṇa temple at Lakkoṇḍanahaḷḷi in the Hosakoṭe tāluka, is said to have been set up by Paraśurāma, according to the sthaḷa-māhātmya of the locality.

^{1.} E. C., VII. Sk. 236, p. 136. 2. Mys. Inscriptions, p. 32.

^{3.} E. C., VII. Sk. 281, p. 146. 4. Ibid, X. Kl. 114, p. 44.

^{5.} E. C., X., K1. 114, p. 44; My. Archl. Rept., for 1919, p. 7.

Hiremagaļūr in the Kadur district, as the sthaļamāhātmya of that place relates, was once the residence of nine siddhas or saints, who performed penance near a pond in the village known as Siddhapuṣkaraṇī. It then became the residence of Paraśurāma. An image of Rāma was set up there. The town also contains a singular memorial. It is the temple of Paraśu, or the axe of the hero. The town was rechristened as Bhārgavapurī. 1

Sorab tāluka is the Surabhī which was Jamadagni's possession. The temple of Renukā, mother of Paraśurāma, existing to this day, at Candragutti, is said to mark the spot where she burnt herself on the funeral pyre of her husband; and the temple of Kōlālammā at Kolar is said to have been erected in her honour from Kārtavīrya's having been slain there. The colloquy with Sāgara is said to have been held near Tīrthahaḷḷi. It was here at Tīrthahaḷḷi that Paraśurāma stood and aimed his axe at Sāgara, as is also parrated in the Grāmapaddhati of Tuluva.

There is a processional image of wood representing Paraśurāma in the village called Cikkanāyakanahaļļi. Pāļya, a small village twelve miles west of Hassan on the Hassan-Sakalespur road, is reckoned to have been the hermitage of Jamadagni. 4

Tuluva too has places which are associated with the memories and doings of Parasurama. Three miles

^{1.} My. Archl. Rept., for 1916, p.21; My. Gaz., I. p. 276. (rev. ed.)

^{2.} My. Gaz., ibid. 3. My. Archl. Rept., for 1918, p. 14.

^{4.} Ibid for 1926, pp. 1-2.

north of Udipi lies the village of Puttur which contains a temple of Durga Bhagavati said to have been established by Parasurama. Although the origin of this temple is according to us quite different, as we shall point out in a later context, yet popular conception connects it with Parasurama. It is said that he established the image of Durga Bhagavati in that temple. Besides this image Parasurama is said to have erected three Durgā images and four Nāgālayas around Udipi. The Durgālavas were those at Kunjāru, Kannarapādi and Indrāni (Indrāli or Indralli). The four Nāgālayas were those of Aritodu, Tāngodu, Māngodu, and Mucca. lagodu, all of them being in the Udipi tāluka. Udipi or Rajathapitha itself, one of the seven holy places in Tuluva, is said to owe its existence to Parasurāma's pietv. The other six centres were Kumārādri (modern Subrahmanya), Kumbhakāsi (modern Kōta), Dhvajeśvara (modern Koteśvara), Krōda (modern Śankaranārāvana), Mūkāmbā (modern Kollūru), and Gokarna (now in North Kanara).

The temple of Rēņukā at Kunjāragiri, a village about eight miles to the south-east of Udipi, is considered very holy because of the image of Reņukā which, according to the Sthala-māhātmya of the locality, Paraśurāma installed in memory of his mother.² The Sthala-

^{1.} These four *Durgālayas* and the four *Nāgālayas* form the *Aṣṭabandhas* round Rajathapīṭha. B. A. S.

^{2.} We may observe here that in this holy place at Kunjaragiri, there are four *Tirthas* called Parasutirtha, Gadātīrtha, Dhanustīrtha, and Saratīrtha. Legend ascribes them to the prowess of Parasurāma. It

māhātmya of Kadirikā asserts that Paraśurāma made a sacrificial fire which the Kāṇapāṭhi Jogis of the north turned into an altar in later days.

The region immediately to the south of Tuluva, Kerala, also owed its origin to Parasurāma. At least so it is related in the traditional accounts of that province called *Keralotpatti*. These legendary accounts of Kerala which will presently be cited, are, however, more confusing than those of Tuluva.¹

We may briefly note here how Paraśurāma has figured in the annals of other provinces as well. Thus, for instance, it is related in the traditions of the Khatris how, when he was exterminating the Kṣatriyas, a pregnant girl escaped and took shelter with a Sarsut (Sārasvata) Brahman. When questioned by the pursuers, the Brahman said that she was his cook (khatrut?), and to prove it ate bread of her hands. Paraśurāma is also mentioned in the traditions of the Nirmand Brahmans of the Sutlej and of the Pālias of Bihar. It is maintained by some that a few sculptures in the Konarak temple in Orissa represent the shooting of arrows by Paraśurāma. Commenting on one of the bas-

is interesting to note that the Tulu language has been used in connection with Paraśurāma in districts outside Tuluva. In the Chitaldroog district is a place called Paraśurāmapura, some inscriptions of which are partly in Tulu. Rice, My. Gaz., I. p. 180 (1st ed.)

^{1.} Taylor, Catalogue Raisonné of Oriental Mss., III. pp. 665-6; Wilson, Mack. Coll., I. p. 74.

^{2.} Indian Antiquary, I. pp. 289-290; ibid, II. p. 26.

^{3.} Rose, Castes and Tribes of the Punjab, I., p. 345; I. A. I. p. 337.

^{4.} I. A., XLVII, p. 215.

reliefs at Bādāmi, Dr. Charpentier remarked that the s'ūrpa or winnowing basket found therein may possibly be referred to Paraśurāma.

3. EXAMINATION OF THE STORY RELATING TO THE ALLEGED CREATIONS OF PARASURAMA

The detailed references to Parasurama's character and valour given above, while they prove the extreme popularity of the great personage and of the veneration in which he was held, especially in the Karnataka and Tamil regions, do not contain notices of his creations which deserve now to be examined also with the aid of literary and epigraphical evidence. That Parasurama cleared the earth of the Ksatriyas twenty-one times, tradition, literary works, and inscriptions unanimously In the version of his story as given in the Mahābhārata and repeated in the Visnu Purāna, as mentioned above, we said that Parasurama gave the earth to the ministering priests who, with the permission of Kaśyapa, divided it amongst themselves. It was also further observed that Jamadagnya retired to the sea shore of the south, on being told by Kasyapa that he had no place anywhere to reside.

These two details seem to have furnished later writers with matter for the construction of an ingenious story which is best described in the sahyādri-kāṇḍa of the Skāṇḍa-Purāṇa. Narrated in the briefest words, it is the following:—That Parasurāma stood on a parti-

^{1.} Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society for 1929, p. 152.

cular spot, threw his battle axe into (or, as some say, shot his arrows at) the Ocean, and with the land thus relinquished to him by Sāgara, formed seven divisions known as the Sapta Konkanas. Of these seven divisions, Tuluva was one. (A minuter division was made of the land into grāmas or villages which were distributed amongst the Brahmans.) After a series of events which need not be described here, he retired to the Mahendra mountain.

The Sahyādri-kāṇḍa asserts that he stood on the top of the Sahya-Sahyācalasya s'ikhare sthitaḥ.¹ This spot may be identified with Tīrthahaḷḷi mentioned both in the sthala-māhātmyas of the Karnāṭaka as well as those of Tuluva, and not with Mount Dilly, as remarked by Wilson long ago.² As to the place where Paraśurāma finally retired, we are told that it was the Mahendra mountain on the southern seashore. This was no other than the most southerly spurs of the Travancore hills

- 1. Sahyādri-kāṇḍa Uttarārdha, Ch. VI. v. 37, p. 325.
- 2. Wilson, Visnu Purāna p. 404, n. 21. It is not mentioned anywhere, as Wilson seems to think, that Parasurāma shot his arrows over the site of modern Keraļa. Wilson writes further in the same connection:—"It seems likely that we have proof of the local legend being at least as old as the beginning of the Christian era, as the Mons Pyrrhus of Ptolemy is probably the mountain of Parasu or Parasu Rāma." Ibid. See also Wilson, Mack. Coll., I. p. xciv. Rice repeats this in his My. Gaz., I. p. 276, n. (3) (1st ed.) Mount Parasu mentioned by Wilson cannot be traced anywhere in the topographical lists known to history. On Mount Dilly or Delly, read J. R. A. S. for 1922, p. 166, seq; ibid, for 1923, pp. 83-4; ibid for 1924, pp. 257-8. Ptolemy mentions Purrhus or the Red Hills. Ptolemy, p. 53. (McCrindle, Calcutta, 1885).

still called by that name from where Hanuman is said to have leaped on to Lanka.¹

Now we come to the main part of the story of Parasurāma with which we are concerned, viz.. the acquisition of a large stretch of country from the ocean by him, his alleged division of the land into seven districts one of which was called Tuļuva, and the distribution of these seven provinces among the Brahmans, as given in the Sahyādri-kārḍa and in the traditional accounts of Tuluva called the Grāmapaddhati. Thus in the Sahyādri-kāṇḍa:—

Brāhmaṇānāṃ tataḥ pṛthvī dānaṃ dattvā-yathā-vīdhiḥ Navīnaṃ nirmitaṃ kṣetraṃ S'urpārakcṃ anuttamaṃ Waitaraṇyā dakṣine tu Subrāhmaṇyaḥ-tathā-uttare Vahyāt-sāgara-paryantaṃ S'urpākāraṃ-vyavasthitaṃ W²

This would make the country reclaimed from the sea one hundred vojanas in length and three vojanas in breadth from the Vaitarani (near Nāsik) in the north to Subrahmanya in the south. The faithfulness of the authors of Skānda Purāņa to one detail given in the Mahābhārata is apparent when we read in the above

^{1.} Rāmāyaṇa, Kiskindhā-kāṇḍa, Sarga 67, vv. 37, 42, pp. 1692-3. A more exact location of Mahendra is given in the same epic where it is expressly stated to be in the south. Sarga, 41, vv. 16, 20, p. 1607 (Mudholkar, Bombay, 1915). Mahendragiri lies a few miles from Nagercoil. It was here on the Mahendragiri that on June 2, 1935, one of the three coolies who had been to that hill, was crushed by a wild elephant, as was reported in the Times of India, Bombay, dated June 12, 1935.

^{2.} Sahyādri-kāṇḍa Uttar Ch. VI. vv. 23-25.

extract that this excellent and newly created place was christened Surpāraka district. This was the name, as we have noted above, given to the new province in the S'ānti Parva.

We may observe here that the Grāmapaddhati of Tuluva, based to some extent as it was on the Sahyadrikānda, also confirms the detail concerning the length and breadth of the new province but adds a few more details which were obviously the outcome of indigenous intellect. Thus one version of the Grāmapaddhati depicts Parasurama as having taken his stand on the Simha-written in some versions Samva-mountain which is evidently an error for Sahya mountain; and of having secured a stretch of territory three yojanas in extent from the Simha mountain and thirty yojanas from Kanyākumārī to Triyambaka. A more accurate version of the same work ascribed to one Bhattācārya, gives the length of the province as one hundred yojanas from Nāsik in the north to Kanyākumārī in the south; and three yojanas in breadth from the Sahya mountain to the western sea.1

The Sahyādri-kānda tells us also that Jāmadagnya created the Sapta Kotīśvara tīrthas with which we are not concerned here.² In a later passage we have the

^{1.} In the version summarized by Wilson, we are informed that Parasurāma threw his axe from Cokarna to Kumārī, and the retiring ocean yielded him the coast of Malabar below the latitude of 15 degrees. Wilson, Mack. Coll., I. Inter. pp. xciv-xcv. Wilson confounds here Tuluva proper with Malabar. B. A. S.

^{2.} Sahyādri-kānḍa Uttar. I. vv. 51-53, p. 305.

statement that he gave twelve grāmas to Brāhmans:—
Nissārayitum-ambūnām-ālayam sāgaram tadā I
Grāmānām dvādas'ānām tu parimānena Bhārgavah II 1

And then we have the names of the famous seven divisions of the new land given thus:—Kerala, Tulunga (i.e., Tuluva evidently), Haiva, Saurāṣṭra, Koṅkaṇa, Karahāṭa, and Karnāṭaka.² These were the well known Sapta Koṅkaṇas of western India.

While the fact of his having reclaimed the Surparaka province from the ocean and of his having established the Sapta Kotīśvaras dividing certain tracts into twelve grāmas amongst Brahmans is thus narrated in the epics and the Puranas, it is not told anywhere that he formed the seven districts mentioned above. The epics and the Purānas—excluding the Sahyādri-kānda do not speak of the Sapta Konkanas as having been created by him. To the absence of this important detail in the Purānas, we may add two considerations to prove that the Sapta Konkanas cannot be ascribed to Parasurama at all. In the elaborate description of the activities of Kartavirya and of his sons, and of the discomfiture which Parasurama suffered at the hands of Dasaratha's son Rāma, as given by Kālidāsa, whose acquaintance with the traditional origin of a part of the western coast we have already seen, no mention is made of the Sapta Konkanas at all. On the other hand, Kālidāsa merely informs us that Parasurāma had given the whole earth bounded by the ocean to the deserving

^{1 &}amp; 2. Ibid, Ch. VI. v. 42, p. 326; v. 46-7, p. 326.

(Brahmans). Thus does Parasurāma himself tell Rāma:— Even the opposite of victory (i. e., defeat) inflicted by thee—the Primeval Being—is certainly agreeable to me who have reduced to ashes the enemies of my father and who have made over the whole earth bounded by the oceans to the deserving:—

Bhasmasāt-kṛtavataḥ pitṛ-dviṣaḥ pātrasāt-ca vasudhāṇ sasāgarām l

Ahitah jaya-viparyayo'pi me s'lāghya eva parameşthin tvayā N 1

The absence of any reference to the creation of the Sapta Konkanas by Parasurama in the work of Kalidasa proves that the legend of Sapta Konkanas must have originated after the poet's time, i. e., after the fifth of the sixth century A.D.

Another consideration which goes to confirm the above assertion is the diversity of opinion among the writers of the story as regards the names of the districts that comprised the Sapta Konkanas. The Sahyādri-kāṇḍa includes among the Konkanas the name Tulunga. Such a variant of the name Tuluva is not met with in any of the hitherto discovered historical records or traditional accounts of that district. Instead of Hayve mentioned in the Sahyādri-kāṇḍa, we have Govarāṣṭra in other accounts. Saurāṣṭra of the same Purāṇa is called Varalatta in other versions. And instead of Karnāṭa, other accounts add Barbara. Furstead of Karnāṭa, other accounts add Barbara.

2 & 3. Wilson, Asiatic Researches XV. p. +7, (n). See Also Bombay Gazetteer, I. P. II. p. 283, n. (5).

^{1.} Raghuvainsa, XI. 86. See also ibid, vv. 64-67 for the story of Kārtavīrya.

ther, the Sapta Konkanas given in some southern accounts contain the names Virāta and Marātha instead of Karnāta and Saurāṣṭra mentioned in the Sahyādri-kūnḍa.¹ This confusion is carried further in the Keralotpatti some versions of which practically deny the Sapta Konkanas altogether. They bring forward an altogether new division of the ancient units thus:—Tuluva, Mūsika, and Kerala.²

The unknown writer of a work called Prapañea-hrdayam, the date of which is unfortunately not determinable, confirms the existence of the above three names but also adds others to make up the Sapta Konkanas. After describing the seven mountain ranges—Rkṣavat, Mahendra, Vindhya, Malaya, Sahya, Suktimat, and Pāriyātra, the work continues to give a brief notice of Lankāpurī, and then speaks of the land called Paras'urāma-bhūmi thus:

Tatra Malaya-dvīpa-madhyavartino Malaya-parvatasyamadhyama-s'ikhare Laṅkāpurī V sā prasiddhatarā Sahyapāde Paras'urāma-bhūmiḥ V sā Sāpta-Koṅkaṇākhyā Kūpaka-Keraļa-Mūṣika-Aluva-Pas'ukoṅkaṇa-Parakoṅkaṇa bhedena dakṣiṇauttura-āyāmena ca vyavasthitā.

How six divisions could be termed Sapta Konkanas passes beyond one's comprehension.

^{1.} Gundert, Malayalam-Ei glish Dicty., q. v.

^{2.} Taylor, Cat Rais., I. p. 667. Another Kerala tradition makes Parasurāma, a Pāṇḍya ruler, and Cereman Ferumāl contemporaries! 1bid. III. pp. 166-7.

^{3.} Prapancahrdayam pp. 3-4. (Ed. by Ganyat Sastri, Trivandrum Skt. Series).

Nevertheless this account given in the Prapañea-hrdayam is important in two ways:—Firstly, it confirms our surmise that there was never any uniformity in the mind of early writers as regards the exact nomenclature of the Seven Konkanas; and secondly, it gives another and an equally historical name of Tuluva—Aluva—which, as will be seen in the following pages, was used in those times to denote not only the dynasty that ruled over Tuluva but the province as well.

4. VERACITY OF THAT PART OF THE ABOVE STORY RELATING TO THE SAPTA KONKANAS EXAMINED

Inscriptional evidence leads us to the conclusion that the legend of the creation of the so-called Sapta Konkanas may have become popular in the eleventh century A.D. It is true that in some inscriptions of the early times we meet with the names of the component parts that made up the Sapta Konkanas. Thus, for instance, in a copper plate grant of the Ganga ruler Mārasimha, assigned to A.D. 786, Varāṭa-deśa in the north is said to be the country from which Śrīdhara Bhaṭṭa, grandfather of the famous disputant Vādighanghaļa Bhaṭṭa, hailed.¹ Hayve is mentioned in a record dated about A.D. 991 as having contained a temple dedicated to the goddess Gundadabbe.² We may also

^{1.} My. Archl. Rept. for 1921, p. 23.

^{2.} E. C. VIII. Sb. 479 p. 81. In A.D. 1047 Hayve was under the Mahāmanḍaleśvara Cāmuṇḍa Rāyarasa. It was conquered by the Kaļacuriya general Keśirāja in A.D. 1159. E. C. VII. Sk. 123, p. 93.

note here that three of the seven famous divisions are mentioned in a later record of the reign of king Harihara Rāya II. It relates that Mallapa Odeyar was in Saka 1308 (A.D. 1386-7) the viceroy over the Tulu, Hayve, and Konkana kingdoms with his capital at Bārakūru.

But the Seven Konkanas seem to have sprung into fame in the Karnāṭaka records from the middle of the eleventh century A.D. onwards. It is said of the Western Cālukya monarch Āhavamalla Trailokyamalla in a record dated A.D. 1054 that he terrified and forced to obey the Seven Konkanas and the Seven Male which were united together. The Kadamba king Kīrti Deva is said to have subdued the Seven Konkanas as if in mere sport, in a record dated A.D. 1077. But in circa A.D. 1076 Bhoja Deva is said to have conquered the Konkana. No mention is made of the Sapta Konkanas in this record.

An ingenious explanation regarding the creation of the Sapta Konkanas by Parasurāma is given in the tollowing record dated A.D. 1112-13 which, while tracing the origin of the great feudatory family of the Pāṇḍyas, alludes thus to the achievement of Parasurāma:—"In the Kṛta yuga to the accomplisher of his desires Jamadagni, the husband of Reṇukā, was born

^{1 154} D of the Epigraphical Report of the Southern Circle for 1901; South Indian Inscriptions, VII., No. 351, p. 209.

^{2.} E. C. VII., Sk. 118, p. 85. 3. E. C. VIII. Sb. 262, p. 42.

^{4.} E. I. XI. p. 181.

the powerful bearer of the Paras'u (or axe), the slayer of the son of Kṛtavīrya, who murdered his guru. And twenty-one times slaying all the kings in the world, he bestowed the circle of the earth as far as the ocean upon the Brahmans (dharaṇī-devar), but considering that he should not dwell in the property of the Brahmans, he turned back the sea with the tip of his bow, the son of Reṇukī, praised by the learned. Having left not even space 'kaṇa' in the place occupied by the western ocean, that hero obtained from the favour of Phaṇikaṇkaṇa (Śiva) the Seven Konkaṇas as his abode. To the lady Konkaṇa country thus created by Paraśurāma. Hayve was like her kankaṇa (or bracelet), in which as the beautiful chief gem shone forth Sisugali "—the capital of the Pāndyas of Ucchangi:—

kṛta-yugadol Jamadagnige kṛtakṛtiyang ogedu Renukīpatig aṅgī- l

kṛta-guru-vadhanaṃ vadhiysi Kṛtavīryātmajanan atibalam Paras'udharaṃ ((

dharaṇī-maṇḍaḷadoḷ dharābhujaran irppatt oṅdu sūḷ koṇḍu tad-!

dharaṇī-maṇḍaḷamaṃ samasta-dharaṇī-dēvarṣe vārddhi antikaṃ- II

baram-itt-alli dharāmara-svaḍoļ iralk āg endu pok-otti sā-l garamam cāpada korppinoļ budha-nutam s'ri-Reņukīnandanam li

kana-mātrodakaman iralk anam īyade pas'cimābdhi teged edayoļ Kon-t

kana-saptakamam Phani-kankana-varade nijās'rayārtham ā-vibhu padedam 11

antu Paras'urāma sṛṣṭi enisida Konkaṇa dhātrī-vaniteya kankaṇad eseva Hayveyoļ Sisugali...¹

Certain considerations may be levelled against this interesting record of the times of the great Western Cālukya monarch Vikramāditya VI. In the first place, the record speaks of Renuki, while the recognized form of the name, as Rice correctly remarked, is Renuka. Secondly, the poet who has thus invented a new name for Jāmadagnya's mother, calls the Brahmans dharani-bhūvar, a singular epithet which, while no doubt being in conformity with the traditional high status assumed by the priestly class, suggests nevertheless that, in this particular instance, it may have been used for reasons other than those of mere Brahmanical sanctimony. Thirdly, Parasurama is described by the scribe as turning the ocean by the tip of his bow. Here we have a peculiar detail which is not mentioned in any account of that hero. The ingenious poet brings in a fourth point which conclusively proves that he was inventing the story with an ulterior motive. He says that Siva gave the land to Parasurāma. But we have seen that, both according to the Sahvādri-kānda and the traditional accounts of

^{1.} E. C., VII. Sk. 99, p. 65, text, p. 183, 11. 14-17. See also My. Inser. p. 83 where the same record is dated A.D. 1112. Read also Bombay Gaz., I. P. II. p. 283 (n). Cf. Kavicarite, I. p. 115 (1924).

Tuluva, it was the Ocean (Varuna) who relinquished the large tract of country from Nāsik to Kanyākumārī to Paraśurāma. Finally, the play upon the words Phaṇikaṅkaṇa and kaṅkaṇa makes one suspect that the originator of the story was more prone to eulogize the greatness of Phaṇikaṅkaṇa (Siva) and to show the ultra-Saivite bent of his mind than to hand down to posterity a trustworthy account of the origin of Paraśurāma kṣetra. Indeed, the manner in which the inscription ends completely justifies our assumption that the poet who composed the above story was a confirmed Saivite:—Gobbūra dhāraṇa-sārvabhauma Mallikārjuna-bhaṭṭaṃ su-kavīndra-Ṣaṇmukhaṃ bhadraṃ astu-S'iva-s'āsanāya.

If the above account of the "Universal Emperor of Mnemonics," as Mallikārjuna Bhatta is styled, were correct, we should have had it in the many epigraphs referring to the Seven Konkanas of the Karnātaka rulers. But, as is proved by the following inscriptions, there is not even the slightest reference to the above version or its variants in them.

Epigraphs relating to the Seven Konkanas are many. The Santara king Jayakesi, son of Vijayaditya, is said in an inscription dated A.D. 1149 to have ruled over the Seven Konkanas. But in A.D. 1125-6 a stone tablet at Narendra represents him as governing the Konkana Nine-hundred, the Hayve Five-hundred and other provinces under the Western Calukya

^{1.} E. C. VII. Sk. 103, p. 74.

monarch Vikramāditya VI.¹ Jayakeśi II, we may incidentally observe, was called Konkaṇa-Cakravarti, or the Emperor of the Konkaṇas.² Through the aid of Nolamba, whose full name is not given in the epigraph dated about A.D. 1078, the Seven Konkaṇas became like bracelets (Kankaṇa) to the same Western Cālukya Emperor Trailokyamalla Vikramāditya VI.³ Vijaya Pāṇḍya Deva is described in records dated A.D. 1168 and A.D. 1168 to have subdued the Seven Konkaṇas as if in mere sport.⁴

The Seven Konkanas were conquered by the famous Hoysala ruler Visnuvardhana Bittiga Deva This is related in later inscriptions ranging from A.D. 1196 to A.D. 1224, of the times of the Hoysala rulers Ballāļa Deva II and Narasimha Deva II. It is said in these epigraphs that when Bittiga Deva appeared as a wrestler (jattiga) on the battle field, the Seven Konkanas cast away their weapons and fell into the sea.⁵

Even in A.D. 1396 Bācaṇa Rāya, son of Vīra Vasanta Mādhava, under the Vijayanagara king Harihara Rāya II, is called the reducer of the Seven Konkaṇas.

We may here observe that the fame of the Seven Konkanas went far beyond the limits of Karnataka king-

^{1.} Journal of the Bombay Branch of the R. A. S. IX. p. 265; Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dist. p. 91. (1st ed.).

^{2.} Fleet, ibid.

^{3.} E. C. VII., Sk. 107, p. 79.

^{4.} Ibid, XI. Dg. 5 & 39, pp. 25-6, 49.

^{5.} Ibid.. VI. Tk. 42, Tk. 45, pp. 109-110; ibid, XI. Dg. 25, p. 34. The Seven Konkanas are also mentioned in A.D. 1223. My. Inser. p. 32.

^{6.} E. C. VII. HI. 71, p. 173.

doms; and that like the rulers of the western and southern India, who were credited with the subjugation of the Sapta Konkanas, the kings of the extreme north were also reputed to have conquered them. Thus Kalhana in his Rājataranginī, while describing the digvijaya or world-conquest of Lalitāditya Muktāpīda of the Karkota dynasty, writes thus:—"Then having his triumphal cheers sounded by the music of the ocean waves, he, the first (apas'cima) of conquerors, proceeded to the western regions. His shining majesty, on reaching the Seven Konkanas, dark with betel-nut trees, appeared like that of the sun with his (seven) horses."

Kalhana gives us a clue to the explanation of the term Sapta Konkana. The splendour of Lalitāditya Muktāpīda, who was bent on conquering the Seven Konkanas, appeared like the glory of the sun with his seven horses. In other words, that ruler of Kāśmīra is described to have undertaken the conquest of seven imaginary territories of western India, in much the same manner as many a Karnāṭaka king, with no doubt substantial claims for widespread conquests both in the Karnāṭaka and Tamil lands, is supposed to have subdued the Sapta Konkanas. The truth seems to be that the term Sapta Konkana was purely conventional. It was used in as wide and unhistorical a sense as the expression the Seven Gaudas over which Kannara Deva is said to have ruled in a.d. 964; the Seven Male over

^{1.} Rājatarangiņī, IV., 158-9, pp. 136,142. (Stein's trans. Westminster, 1900).

which, as is narrated in an inscription dated A.D. 1024, Vira Nolamba reigned; the Seven Male and the Seven Kombu which were subdued by Visnuvardhana Bittiga Deva, as records dated A.D. 1134 and A.D. 1135 inform us: the Seven Islands in the middle of the ocean which are said to have trembled before Hoysala Narasimha I, as given in an epigraph dated A.D. 1169; and the Seven Kalingas which were conquered, according to the Tamil historical narrative Kalingattu Parani, by the king of Vaindainagara, the Pallava feudatory of the Cola king. We have elsewhere proved how significant the number Seven has been in the history of eastern thought.2 The attempt made by Fleet, therefore, to include the Hayve or Payve Five Hundred (roughly modern North Kanara), the Konkana Nine Hundred (modern Goa, which, however, he identifies with Revatī Dvīpa!) the Iridige country (modern Sāvantavādi State and the Ratnāgiri districts),

^{1.} E. C. XI. H1. 30, p. 119; ibid, XII. Gb. 34, p. 24; Śravana Belgola Ins., No. 144, p. 187 (1st ed.); My. Archl. Rept. for 1929, p. 137; E. C., VI. Kd. 51, p. 11; I. A. XIX. pp. 334-6. The seven islands, the seven mountain chains, the seven days, the seven planets, and the seven horses of the sun are mentioned in a record of A.D. 1174. E. C. VII. Sk. 236, p. 135.

^{2.} Cf. Saletore, Social and Political Life in the Vijayanagara Empire, I. pp. 123-4. See also Satapatha Brāhmana, VI. Khanda, 1 Adhyāya, 1 Brāhmana, p. 144, (SBE Vol. III) where Indra or Prājapati ia described to be composed of seven parts. See also Raghuvanisa, I. 58, 68, XIII. 51. The number Seven has also been important in Buddhist literature. Read Cowell, The Jātaka, V. p. 167, VI. p. 200. The following references may also be read: QJMS, XV, pp. 116-24; XVI, pp. 263-83, XVIII, pp. 30-45, 94-105.

the Konkana Fourteen Hundred (of the northern Silahāras, now represented by Kolābā and Thāṇa), and the Lāṭa country (which, according to Fleet, was the name given to Surat and Baroda) under the mythological denomination of Seven Konkanas seems to be both arbitrary as well as unhistorical.¹

5. REFERENCES TO TUĻUVA IN THE EPICS AND THE PURĀNAS

The above explanation of the term Sapta Konkana does not aid us in the history of Tuluva. All that we may venture to suggest is that in the early days when the recollection of a huge upheaval of the ocean was within the memory of mankind, Tuluva must have existed as a separate geographical division; and that it must have been of sufficient importance to have been included among the alleged creations of Jāmadagnya. The absence of the term Sapta Konkana in inscriptions of the ninth century and earlier, and the silence which Kālidāsa, for instance, maintains as regards the sup-

^{1.} Fleet, Bombay Gaz., I. P. II. p. 283, (n). In the same note he says that the subject is capable of further elucidation, especially if the Konkana is held to have extended beyond the Malabar district. The divisions, then, according to Fleet, would be:—1. Travancore and Cochin, 2. Malabar, 3. South Kanara, 4. North Kanara, 5. Goa, 6. Ratnāgiri, and 7. Kolābā, Thāna and Surat. As against this, we may note the following: In the first place, no inscription or tradition extends the Konkan beyond Malabar. Secondly, the inscriptions hitherto discovered have never enlightened us on this purely hypothetical division. B. A. S.

^{2.} On Parasurama's story, read, Rice, My. Gaz., I. pp. 275-6 (1st ed.); I. A., III. p. 191; Sturrock, S. C. Manual, I. pp. 9, 57.

posed seven divisions of a province the legendary origins of which, as we have narrated, he seems to have noted, prove beyond doubt that the story of the Sapta Konkanas may have originated after the times of Kālidāsa; and that it received a tangible shape when the brilliant conquests of the Karnāṭaka monarchs in the middle of the eleventh century A.D. and onwards, gave ample scope to scribes and panegyrical writers to dwell on the number Seven and to apply it to many of the provinces of southern and western India.

But it must be confessed that Tuluva does not figure either in the Rāmāvana or in the Mahābhārata as a district of political importance; and that even in some of the Puranas, as will be seen presently, no mention is made of its individual existence at all. We may account for this by saying that in the times of the epics, the Tuluvas, while they had made themselves acquainted with their neighbours the Karnataka people, had not acquired any political status worthy of note; and that some of the writers of the Puranas were evidently ignorant of the activities of the Tuluvas whose country, as will be shown at once, was not devoid of places of pilgrimage of considerable antiquity. One of these was Gokarna which, as we have already seen, was one of the seventeen Tirthas established by Parasurama within the limits of Tuluva. It was at Gokarna that, according to tradition, the image which Ravana brought from the mountain called "Coila", with the intention of carrying it off to Lanka,

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got transfixed at the place where it now stands. Another spot is Pātāļa-Lankā which, as Rice remarked, was in Kanara. It is doubtful whether this is to be identified with Vaļa-Lankā (Vaļa-Lanke), a suburb of Mūlki in Tuļuva. The hill Kunjāragiri located in the south in the Rāmāyana and hitherto unidentified, was no other than the Kunjāragiri spoken of above as a holy place near Udipi, associated with the memories of Parasurāma. It is mentioned in the Brhatsamhitā as a des'a but under a slightly different name Kunjaradari, and located in the same work after Kaccha and before Tāmraparna. The evidence of Brhatsamhitā agrees with that of the Mārkandeya Purāna to be cited presently.

Certain names of rivers, hill-tops, and places mentioned in the Mahābhārata and the Purāṇas bear a strong similarity to those found in Tuluva. In the topographical list given in the Bhīṣma Parva, a people called Utūlus are mentioned after the Abhisāras and before the Saivalas. We do not know whether this name has to be referred to the Tulus. Neither are we

^{1.} Buchanan, A Journey., III. p. 166; Burgess-Cousens, Revised List of Antiquities, pp. 190-191.

^{2.} Rice, My. Gaz., I. p. 183.

^{3.} Vaļa-Lanke is one of the seventy-seven islands which, according to Tuluva tradition, formed a part of the Ghorāṣṭra mentioned above. Cf. Hegde, Caritre, p. 41. Was Vaļa-Lanke a corruption of Vuļāyida-Lanke which in Tuļu means "Within Lanke"? B. A. S.

^{4.} Rāmāyana Kişk-kānda, XL. v. 35, p. 166. (Bombay, 1911); Mark. Pur. p. 367, n.

^{5.} Brhatsamhitā, Ch. XIV. v. 16, p. 51 (Calcutta, 1880). It is also mentioned by Alberuni, India, I. p. 301. (rev. ed.)

in a position to assert whether the Pracyas placed after the Keralas and before the Musikas in the same Parva, were in any way connected with the Tulus. Among the seven kula parvatas described in the same list, we have of course Sahya, the eastern boundary of Tuluva. The Kumārī river mentioned after the Vṛṣasābhayā and before Rsikulyā in the same context bears a strong resemblance to the Kumārī (Kumāradhārī) of Tuļuva,2 although it must be admitted that there are greater reasons for identifying it with its namesake in Bihar.3 The Kumārī is mentioned in the Agni and Mārkandeya Purānas, too, where it is said to rise in the Suktiman mountains.4 The Padma Purāna likewise speaks of it but in manner to justify one's doubt that there may have been some confusion in the mind of the compilers of the Puranas between the rivers that flowed in the north and those in the south. For the Padma Purāņa, following the Bhīṣma Parva, no doubt, locates the Kumārī after the Vṛṣasā (ka) and before Ḥṣikulyā, in the north. But the same Purāna groups the Kumārī and the Sukumārī together with the Mahānadī and the Sītā, and describes them as flowing in the S'aka-dvīpa.5

^{1-2.} Bhīşma Parva, Sec. IX. pp. 29-30.

^{3.} Dey identifies the Kumārī and the Sukumārī with the Kaorhari which rises in the Suktimat in the Bihar subdivision near Rajgir. Geographical Dictionary of Ancient and Mediaeval India, p. 107 (2nd ed. London, 1927).

^{4.} Agni Purāṇa, Ch. 118, v. 7, p. 162. (Poona, 1900); Mark-Pur. pp. 305-6.

Padma Purāṇa, Vol. I, Ch. VI. v. 31, p. 9; Ch. VIII. vv. 30-31,
 p. 12. (Poona, 1893).

The Viṣṇu Purāṇa too places the Kumārī in the same dvīpa but mentions another river—the Nalinī which recalls the Nalinī of Tuluva. The Vāyu Purāṇa and the Matsya Purāṇa likewise mention the Kumārī but under the name Sukumārī.

The Vāyu Purāṇa mentions Indrakīla which is the ancient name of Adūru, a village seventeen miles east of Kāsaragōdu, where there is an old sculptured Siva temple fabled to have been founded by Arjuna. It is now in ruins but is said to have been repaired about five hundred years ago. According to Tuļuva tradition, Maṇipura, an island which lies on the way from Udipi to Hangārakaṭṭa, is said to have been the Maṇipura which Arjuna visited on his way from

^{1.} Visnu Purāna, II, pp. 127, 176. If the word dvīpa is to be interpreted in the sense of a doab as suggested by Pargiter, (Mārk Pur. p. 364, n.), and if the Saka-dvīpa could be identified with Tuļuva, which, we confess, is a question that is beset with considerable difficulties, one may venture to say that the seven rivers of the Saka-dvīpa-the Sukumāri, the Kumārī, the Naļinī, the Dhenukā, the Iksū, the Venukā, and the Gabhasti—bear much resemblance, as to their names, to the seven rivers of Tuļuva—the Netrāvatī (which is joined by the Kumārī below the Ghats), the Sāmbhavī, the Malāpaḥ, the Sītā, the Nalinī, the Nandinī, and the Suktimatī. But this is a purely hypothetical consideration. B.A.S.

^{2.} Vāyu Purāna, Ch. XLIV. v. 108, p. 138 (Poona, 1905); Matsya Purāna, P. I., Ch. CXIV. 20-32, p. 308.

^{3.} Wilson located Indrakila on Rāmagiri. Asiatic Researches, VIII. p. 334; Orient Magazine, II. p. 186 seq.; Srinivasa Hegde, Caritre, p. 264; Sewell, Lists of Antiquarian Remains in the Madras Presidency, I. p. 238. But Indrakila is also the name of the hill in Bezwada where Arjuna's fight with Siva, disguised as a Kirātatook place. A stone inacription ascribed to the ninth century A. D. confirms this. Ep. Rep. of the Southern Circle for 1916, p. 149.

Mahendra in the south, while going to Gokarna in the north. About a mile and a half to the east of Udipi lies the village of Indrani, also known as Indralli. The sthala māhātmya of this locality says that Arjuna spent a few days here and was carried aloft to Amarāvatī by Indra. Hence the name Indralli (Indra-halli). The above places which are supposed to have been visited by Arjuna leave out of account numerous stones, caves, and wells alleged to have been constructed by the Pāndavas in the course of their exile.

The Mārkandeya Purāna, however, speaks of three important hill tops of Tuluva: Puspagiri, Kūtaśaila, and Kuñjāra (giri). The Puspagiri located in that work after Pandara and before Durjayanta may be identified with Puspagiri (5,667 feet high), on which stands the famous temple of Subrahmanya in Tuluva.³

- 1. Adi Parva, Ch. CCXIX, pp. 601-2. There is also a Manipura in Kalinga and another one in Mysore. Wilson, Viṣnu Purāṇa, pp. 403-4; E. I., IV. p. 340. Manipura was the ancient name of Bhatkal. Burgess-Cousens, Revised List., p. 194.
- 2. As, for instance, the Pāṇḍava caves at Kadri, near Mangalore; the collection of five *Tīrthas* in the temple of Someśvara at Ullāļa, four miles and a half south of Mangalore; Ulūpe at the foot of the Ghats which, according to some, was so named after Ulūpi, the daughter of the Nāga king, and the wife of Arjuna. B. A. S.
- 3. Pargiter, Mark. Pur., pp. 284, 290; Sturruck, S. C. Manual, I. pp. 11-12, II. p. 271; Vogel, Serpen Lore in India, pp. 272-3; Imperial Gazetteer, XXIII, p. 115; I. A., VII. p. 42. There is also a Puspagiri in the Cuddappah district. E. I. III. p. 24; Bowring, Eastern Experiences, p. 89 (Lond. 1872). This Puspagiri is mentioned in the above list in the Mark. Pur. by its common name Sriparvata, and hence it is very unlikely that it would have been twice named in

In the same Purāna mention is made of Kūtaśaila after Gomanta and before Krtasmāra.1 This was no other than the well known hill top Kūtaśaila, also called as Kudaśādri (4,400 feet), seventeen miles from Kundāpūru.2 The same work locates the people of Kanci, the Tilangas (Telungus? Tulungus?), and those who dwell in Kuñjaradari, Kaccha (Cochin ?), and Tamraparni in the Tortoise's right flank.3 The mount Kunjara referred to here is no doubt the same hill we have mentioned above as being one of the famous hills near Udipi on which the temple of Renuka stands, and as having been mentioned in the Rāmāyaņa and the Brhatsamhitā. We may also note here that one of the rivers described in the Markandeya Purana may perhaps with some reservations be identified with its namesake

the same context. Our identification of Puspagiri with the hill-top of that name in Tuluva is, therefore, fully justified. The Paṇḍaṛa referred to in the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa was no other than the hillock on which the celebrated temple of Viṭṭhala in Paṇḍharpur stands. This justifies my identification of Paṇḍarādri mentioned in the Pāṇḍaraṅgapalli plates of king Avidheya. Read the Antiquity of Paṇḍharpur, I. H. Q. XI. pp. 771-778. B. A. S.

^{1.} Mark. Pur., p. 290.

^{2.} Sturrock, ibid, I. pp. 11-12. Bowring gives 4, 111 feet as the height of Kodaśādri. Eastern Experiences, p. 133. We may note here that there is another Kūtaśaila, also known as Kōtyamale or Kōdyamale, in Kārañje, about eight miles east of Bantwāl in Tuļuva. How the famous group of hills in Tuļuva—Kudremukh or Kōtekān (6,173 feet), Midge Point (6,177 feet), and Funk Hill (6,207 feet), were known to the compilers of the Purāṇas, cannot be made out. On these read Sturrock, ibid, pp. 11-12. Bowring gives the height of Kudremukh as 6,100 feet. Bowring, ibid, p. 151.

^{3.} Mark. Pur., p. 367.

in Tuluva. This is the Suktimatī. It may be identified with the Suktimatī of Tuluva, also known as the Gangavādi or the Gangolli or the Gurget. It flows by S'ankaranārāyaṇa, and is called further down Hālādi Hole.

The Brahmāṇḍa Purāṇa also mentions the Kūṭas'aila after Kūṭaka and before Tuṅgaprasta, and the Pūṣpagiri after Hariparvata and before Jayanta; while the Vāyu Purāṇa locates the Kūṭaśaila after Kāru, and Puṣpagiri after Godhanagiri and before Ujjayanta.³

In all likelihood the river Payoṣnī placed after the Vitastā and before the Devikā in the Bhīṣma Parva was the Payasvānī or Candragiri river or Tuļuva. The Padma Purāṇa evidently follows the Bhīṣma Parva when it locates the Payoṣnī after the Vitastā and before the Devikā. But the same Purāṇa places the Payoṣnī after

^{1.} Mārk. Pur., pp. 297-8. Pargiter identified the Suktimatī with the Suktimatī on which stood the capital of Cedi. On the Suktimān mountain which Cunningham identified with the hill range south of Sehoa and Kānker, read, Arch. Sur. of India, XVII. pp. 24, 69. Here Cunningham also identifies the Suktimatī with the Mahānadī. But in the Bhīṣma Parva the Suktimatī is located after the Mahānadī and before the Anaṅgā. Bhīṣma Parva, IX. p. 31. Pargiter rejected the identification of the hill-top Suktimat as given by Cunningham. Mārk. Pur. p. 285, n. According to Dr. R. C. Majumdar the Suktimān mountains are the Suleman range in the Hindu Kus group. Proceedings of the Second All-India Oriental Conference, pp. 609-612.

^{2.} Cf. Aygal, Dakşina Kannada Jilleya Prācīna Itihāsa, p. 2; Sturrock, S. C. Manual, I. p. 12.

^{3.} Brahmānda Purāna in Asiatic Researches, VIII. p. 334; Vāyu Purāna, Ch. 45, v. 92, p. 137. (Poons, 1900).

^{4.} Bhīşma Parva, IX. pp. 29-30.

the S'arāvati and before the Bhīmā,¹ thus justifying our assumption that the Payoṣnī was perhaps meant for the Payasvānī of Tuļuva. But the Matsya Purāṇa describes it as flowing from the Vindhya mountain.² Whatever may be the difficulty in our identification of this river, we see that the name Payoṣnī and Payasvānī bear close resemblance to each other.

The Bhavisvottara Purana has a long account to give of the origin of the longest river of Tuluva, the Netravatī. It is said that when once the powerful giant Hiranvāksa carried away the earth to Pātāla or the nether regions, the gods in tear ran to Visnu who was then living in the Sveta-dvipa. In order to appeare the gods, Visnu took the shape of a boar, killed the giant and saved the world. When He was resting on the Veda Pāda Parvata, the right tusk of the boar broke and there gushed forth the river Bhadra. From the left tusk, which was longer than the other, there sprang the sister river Tunga. Simultaneously a third stream issued from the eyes of the boar, and this was The two former taking different the Netrāvatī. courses, unite in the east at Kūdali, running thenceforth under the name of Tungabhadra. While the third onethe Netravati-goes in the opposite direction below the

^{1.} Padma Purāņa, Vol. I. Ch. VI. v. 13, 16. p. 8.

^{2.} Matsya Purāṇa, P. I. Ch. IV. vv. 2032, p. 308 (Taluqdar). The Agni Purāṇa however calls it Payosnikā and places it after the Tāpī and before Godāvarī flowing from the Sahya. Ch. VII. v. 118, p. 162.

Ghats, and unites with the Kumārī river mentioned above.

6. CLAIMS OF TULUVA TO ANTIQUITY

Not till we come to the epigraphical records of the Karnāṭaka kings of the early centuries of the Christian era, and to the accounts of foreign geographers of the same period, do we get any reliable data concerning the existence of Tuluva as an independent political unit. Before we deal with this part of the narrative, we may dispense with the attempts made by some to identify Tuluva with one of the principalities given in the Rock Edicts of Aśoka. In the II. Rock Edict at Gīrnar, and in the II. Rock Edict at Kālsi, the name Satiyaputa is mentioned after the Pāṇḍyas and before the Ketalaputa (Keralaputa).

Speculation has been rife as regards this word Satiyaputa. It has been imagined by some that the Satiyaputa mentioned in the Rock Edicts refers to Tuluva under the alleged name of Satyabhūmi. Some have attempted to connect the word Satiyaputa with

^{1.} Bhavisyottara Purāna cited in I. A., I. pp. 212-3. It is interesting to observe in this connection that both the rivers Tungā and Bhadrā take their rise in the same tract, viz., in the extreme west of Mysore, about 250 miles as the crow flies from Bangalore. This place is called Gangāmūla. It is held sacred by the people. Now, this Gangāmūla is exactly the same spot where the Suvarnā river of Tuļuva—which flowing past Puttige towards the east is called the Varāhanadī—is said to originate. This locality is also known as Guruguūjemūla, B. A. S.

^{2.} Hultzsch, Inscriptions of Aśoka, pp. 18, 29, seq.

the Satvatas who are supposed to have occupied Tuluva.1

Wherever else the Satiyaputa of the Rock Edicts may be located, it cannot be identified with Tuluva. We shall see while dealing with the political history of the district, that the supposed identity of the Sātvatas (and of the Cutus) with the rulers of the district does not rest on any historical grounds.

Now, in regard to the other statement that the Satiyaputa of the Rock Edicts was the same as the Satyabhūmi of the early writers, and that it may be equated with Tuluva, we may observe the following:— On the strength of the Tamil classic Ahnānūru and the S'ilappadikāram, which are said to be the products of the so-called Sangham age, it is asserted that Tulunādu was a separate province in the early centuries of the Christian era. In the Aham (294) the Tulunādu is located to the west of the Erumainādu (Skt. Mahiṣamandala) which lay immedialy to the north of Tamilagam or the Tamil country proper. The Aham (24), as the anthology of erotic subjects said to have been compiled by Uruttirasamman, under the patronage of the Pāṇḍya king Ugrapperuvuludi, is called, also informs

^{1.} Cf. Saletore, Indian Culture, I. pp. 667-674. The following may also be read in addition to the references given in ibid, p. 667, n. (1):-Bühler, Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenla'ndischen Gesellschaft, XXXVII, p. 98, seq.; Bhandarkar, J. Bomb. R.A.S. XX. p. 398, (N. S.); Burgess identified Satiyaputa with Telingana. Amaravati Stupa, p. 3.

^{2.} I am indebted to my friend V. R. Ramachandra Dikshitar for these references in the Aham. B. A. S.

us that the Tulu country was occupied by the Kośars. From the epithet given to the Kośar in the Śangham works, viz., that they were addicted to the habit of speaking the truth, it is supposed that they can be identified with the Satiya (Satya) putas of the Aśokan Edicts. The Kośars, who attended the installation of the goddess Pattani by the Cera king Senguttuvan, as mentioned in the S'ilappadikāram, are imagined to have been the inhabitants of Tuluva. Since these events are assigned to the second century A. D., it is conjectured that Tuluva at that time was a separate political division having friendly dealings with the Tamil kingdoms.¹

These attractive arguments deserve to be examined not only on the basis of the epigraphs and tradition concerning Tuluva but also with the aid of the very classical works which are assigned to the Sangham age in Tamil history. To start with, it may be said that the age of the Sangham poets itself is by no means a settled question. Apart from this consideration, it is

^{1.} It is also asserted that Nannan, who is mentioned in Aham (13) as having been invited by the Kosar, and as having lost his State elephant, ruled over South Kanara and North Kanara in the middle of the second century A.D. S. K. Aiyangar, I. A., LIV, pp. 37-8; Some Contributions of South India to Indian Culture, p. 323. Kanakasabhai maintains that Māmulunār, who is supposed to have lived between A.D. 100-130, visited Tuluva! The Tamils 1800 years ago, p. 198. B.A.S.

^{2.} This point will be discussed at some length in the writer's forthcoming work on Buddhism. For the present, read Dr. Barnett, Journal of Indian History, III. p. 137, seq. See also Fleet, JRAS for 1910, p. 429; QJMS. III. p. 60.

doubtful whether the nine poets, who are said to have made up the galaxy of the Sangham age, lived at one and the same time. Moreover it is permissible to question the validity of the statement of those who assign the first or the second century A.D. to the Sangham poets, on the strength of the Tamil classic S'ilappadikāram. If the Cera king Senguttuvan mentioned in the S'ilappadikāram is the same Cera king of Vañji, the great Śenguttuvan, who is represented in the other Tamil gem Manimekhalai as having reduced all the land to the same condition as that of his own hill territory, who is said to have marched at the head of his army up the banks of the Ganges, and who celebrated victories by wearing the garland of vahai, then, it is doubtful whether the S'ilappadikāram can be assigned to the first or the second century A. D., and whether the statement made in it referring to the Kośars, and, therefore, to the supposed occupation of Tuluva by those people, can be given much credence. For the S'ilappadikāram would then have to be placed posterior to the Manimekhalai, the date of which itself is still a matter of dispute. This would bring the age of the S'ilappadikāram to about A. D. 756.1 If this age is accepted, we cannot credit the Kosars with the occupation of Tuluva, since in the seventh century A. D., the Tuluvas had risen into prominence under an indigenous royal family.

^{1.} This is the date assigned to it by the late Swamikannu Pillai. Read Epigraphical Report of the Southern Circle for 1919, p. 92.

Turning to the verse 294 of the Aham which speaks of Tulunādu as having been to the west of Erumainādu which some identify with Mysore, we may observe that there is no evidence to prove that in the early centuries of the Christian era, Mysore was ever called by that name. Since the poets of the Sangham age do not speak of the earlier names by which the more famous parts of the Karnātaka country were known—e.g., Kalabappu (mod. Candragiri hill), Punnāta, Kuntala, etc.—, we may dispense with the assertion that the Mahisamandala refers to Mysore in the first or second century A. D. Hence, the assertion made in verse 294 of the Aham is not of much value for determining the antiquity of Tuluva.

We now come to the third argument based on the statements of the writers of the Sangham age, viz., that the Kośars, who were given to the habit of speaking the truth, occupied Tuluva; that the land hence came to be known as Satyabhūmi or the country of truth speaking people; and that this was no other than the Satiyaputa of the Aśokan Edicts. These arguments seem to be plausible, especially when we take into consideration the explanation of the term Satiyaputa

^{1.} Cf. Saletore, Social and Political Life, I. p. 40, n. (2). See also E. I., IV. p. 58, n. (2), We cannot conceive of Asoka sending two missionaries—Thera Mahādeva and Thera Rakkhita,—the former of whom was despatched to Mahisamandala, the latter to Vanavāsi,—as given in the Mahāvamso (Geiger Bode, Mahāvamso, p. 84) to one and the same country. The efforts of Rice to identity Mahisamandala with Mysore (My. & Coorg, p. 14, and ibid, n. (17), seem to be, therefore, futile. B. A. S.

offered by Drs. Lüders and Przyluski, viz., that the Pāli putta (Skt. putra) at the end of compounds frequently means "belonging to a tribe", and that the Sātvatas were the Sātakarņis.¹ This would mean that Tuļuva was the land inhabited by the Sātvatas (Sātakarņis). It may also be argued that the Satiyaputa of the Rock Edicts is precisely the word Satyaputra occurring in the code of the legendary Tuļuva lawgiver Bhutāļa Pāndya, who is supposed to have lived in the first or second century of the Christian era, and to whom the law of inheritance through the female is ascribed. Further, it may also be suggested that one of the earliest inhabitants of Tuļuva were the Koragars who are well known for their truthfulness, and whose word has become proverbial.²

These arguments, if considered sound, would settle once for all the question of the antiquity of Tuluva as an independent political unit in the early centuries A. D. But they are untenable on the following grounds:—The Koragars, who may be credited with the ownership of the land in Tuluva in some remote period of her history, were no doubt a tribe noted for their honesty and straight dealing. But, as we have shown elsewhere, the Koragars of Tuluva formed a branch of a wild tribe spread over the whole of

^{1.} Lüders, ZDMG LVIII, p. 693, seq.; Przyluski, JRAS for 1929, p. 273, seq.; IHQ, IX, pp. 88-91; J. Andhra H. R. Society, IV, p. 49, seq.

^{2.} Thurston, Castes and Tribes of Southern India, III. p. 424.

India.¹ The habit of speaking the truth is shared no doubt by the Koragars along with other aboriginal people who do not figure in this treatise. Moreover, the Koragars do not seem ever to have been called Kośars at all in their folk-songs. Further, there is no agreement among scholars as to where the Kośars settled. According to some, the Kośars lived in the Kongunādu which corresponds roughly to the modern Coimbatore and Salem districts. Tuluva was never in any period of her history part of the Kongudeśa. And it cannot be that the Kośars inhabited both the Kongudeśa and Tuluva at the same time, since that would have given them some sort of political status which would have left its traces in history or legend. But the history of Tuluva is silent in regard to this point.

As regards the story of Bhutāļa Pāṇḍya, we shall see in the course of this treatise that the story relating to him cannot be assigned to such an early age at all.

Finally, it may be asserted that in none of the epigraphical records of Tuluva is there the slightest reference either to the name Satyabhūmi or Kośar or Śātvata or Śātakarni. We shall presently see that Tuluva was under a powerful indigenous dynasty which has left valuable records behind it.

We conclude, therefore, that much reliance cannot be placed on the occupation of Tuluva by the Kośars in the early centuries of Christian era. It is nevertheless evident that when the Tamil writers wrote their

1. Cf. Saletore, The Wild Tribes., p. 43, op. cit.

anthologies, the name of Tuluva had spread far into the Tamil land. Indeed, the traditions of the Tondai-mandalam refer to the colonization of some parts of that country by the Tuluva Vellalers in the days of Kulottunga Cola Deva and of his son Ādondai Cakravarti. But these activities of the Tulu people refer to the tenth and the eleventh centuries A.D., when they had already become conspicuous in the annals of both the Tamil and the Karnāṭaka lands.

Foreign geographers are more informative than the Sangham authors concerning the important kingdom and ports in Tuluva in the early centuries A. D. We may venture to suggest here that if the evidence of the Greek-Kannada Farce discovered so far back as 1899 at Oxyrhynchus in Egypt, and given at the end of this narrative, could be accepted, we should have a further proof of the importance of Tuluva in the history of India. It has been rightly maintained that the Barace of Pliny (A. D. 23-A. D. 79) was no other than Basarūru, the Barcelore of mediaeval days.³ Ptolemy (middle

^{1.} On the history of the Kongudeśa, read Epigraphical Report of the Southern Circle for 1906, pp. 59-61; ibid, for 1911, p. 77. Read also Kanakasabhai, The Tamils., p. 51,

^{2.} Wilson, Mack. Coll., I. pp. LXXXIII-LXXXIV; Caldwell, A Comparative Grammar, p. 36 (1875).

^{3.} Bostock-Riley, Pliny, I. Intr. p. vii; II. pp. 38, seq., 46 seq.; Newbold, Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, X. V. p. 226; Sewell; Lists. I. p. 230; Sturrock, S. C. Manual, II. p. 242. But in Vol. I. p. 56, Sturrock doubts it. This town, we may incidentally observe, is said to derive its name from a ruler called Vibudhavasu. But he lived in A.D. 1244, as will be shown hereafter. On Basarūru, see Hobson-Jobson, p. 45 where it is said that town received its name from a fig tree.

of the 2nd century A.D.) speaks of a town called Maganur in the midst of the false mouth and the Barios.¹ What the latter word Barios stands for, it is difficult to say. But the false mouth (of the river) evidently refers to the dangerous place where the Netrāvatī meets the sea, and Maganur was no doubt Mangalūru.

This was the same Mangarouth which Kosmos Indikopleustes, a merchant who adhered "strictly to truth", and who was the author of *Christian Topography* (middle of the sixth century A. D.), mentions as having been one of the five ports of what he calls "Male". Elliot writes of Casiri as quoting a Ms. in which Mangalore is mentioned at the beginning of the seventh century A. D.³

^{1.} Ptolemy, cited in Hobson-Jobson, p. 552. Nitrias, a port mentioned by Pliny, was thought to have been the same as the Netrāvatī. McCrindle, Ancient India as described in Classical Literature, p. 111 (Lond. 1901). But Nitrias has also been identified with Bangkok, in North Kanara. Fleet, Bombay Gaz., I. P. II. p. 2.

^{2.} McCrindle, *ibid*, p. 161. Mangalore, we may observe, had risen to prominence by this time. It is mentioned in a grant assigned to A.D. 444. Rice, Mys. Insc., p. 297. The statement that a queen named Mangalā Devī built the town in the 4th century A.D. (Kavali Venkaṭarāmasvāmi, Descriptive Sketches of the Cities of the Dekkan p. 31, [1831]), is wrong. No such name is known to history. We shall see that the town of Mangalore owed its origin to Buddhist influence. It is spoken of in A.D. 968 and again in A.D. 1151. E.C. VIII, Sb. 464, Sb. 465, p. 78. B. A. S.

^{3.} Elliot. Dawson, History of India as told by her own Historians, I. p. 68, n. (4).

One of the most well known ports in Tuluva was Bārakūru, called Fakanūr and Bārakanūru.¹ This, it must be confessed, is not mentioned by the Greek geographers. It may be due to the fact that, as we shall see later on when we shall trace its history, Bārakūru came into prominence both as a commercial centre and as a provincial seat of the local rulers only from the eleventh century A. D. onwards.

While dealing with the inland towns of a people whom he calls pirates, Ptolemy speaks of Oloikhora.² This has been rightly identified with Alvakheda, the annals of which now deserve to be described in detail.

^{1.} Ibid, p. 68. See also Elliot, JRAS for 1870, pp. 342-45.

^{2.} McCrindle, I. A., XIII. p. 367; Rice, My. & Coorg. p. 137. Ptolemy mentions a town called Byzantion. McCrindle, I. A., XIII. p. 327. Fleet identified it with Vijayadurga in the Ratnāgiri district. Dyn. Kan. Dist. p. 8. n. (3). We may note that, according to Tuluva tradition, Kundāpūru in northern Tuluva is also called Jayantipura or Jayantikā. Taylor, Oriental Hist. Mss. 11. p. 59. Jayanti-dvīpa was one of the creations of Parašurāma in Tuluva. Hegde, Caritre, p. 42. Alberuni speaks of a Banavāsi on the sea coast. India., I. p. 202 (Sachau, London, 1888). Banavāsi is called Jayantipura and Vaijayanti in inscriptions. Rice, My. & Coorg., pp. 14, 21-3.

CHAPTER II

THE ĀLUPA DYNASTY

Summary: -1. Antiquity of the Alupa dynasty. 2. Derivation of the name Alupa and rejection of the fallacious theories concerning the Dravidian origin of the name and of their alleged trans-Ghat habitation. 3. Early Alupas: Māramma Ālvarasar; Kundavarmarasa I; Āluva Guņasāgara; Citravāhana I. 4. Civil war in Udayāvara: Citravāhana I vs. Ranasagara; the latter vs. Svetavahana; the latter vs. Prthvīsāgara; Vijavāditya Ālupendra. 5. Citravāhana II; Aļva Raņanjava; Dattālpendra Śrīmāra; Kundavarmarasa II; Bankideva Alupendra I. 6. Mediaeval Alupas: Height of the Alupa power-Udayadityarasa; Pandya Pattiga Deva; Bhujabala Kavi Alupendra; (Sevvagellara); Alupa Jagadeva; Kulaśekhara Deva I: Nūrmmadi Cakravarti; Vibudhavasu; Vīra Pāṇḍya Deva Ālupendra; Nāga Devarasa; Bańkideva Alupendra Deva II. 7. The later Alupas and the Beginning of the Decline of the Alupa Power: Soyideva Alupendra; Vira Kulaśekhara Deva II; Vīra Pāņdva Deva II; Kulašekhara Deva III; Vīra Pāņdva Deva III; Kulaśekhara Deva IV. 8. Some chieftains: Kāntaņa Māra Āļuva; Dēvannarasa; Manjaņa Komņa. 9. Unidentified Alupa monarchs: Kavi Vimalāditva; Kumāra Javasingarasa: Kulasekhara. 10. Features of Administration under the Alupas: the King and his officials; Capitals; Municipal Corporations; Rural administration; Social solidarity; Army; and Taxation.

1. ANTIQUITY OF THE ALUPA DYNASTY

The Alupa dynasty controlled the destiny of Tuluvanādu from the early centuries of the Christian era till the middle ages. There cannot be any doubt that it was a family of considerable antiquity. It was a premature and partially correct statement which

Hultzsch made when he wrote that Alupa kings existed as a ruling family from the seventh to the eleventh century of the Christian era.1 In stating thus he took into consideration the references to the Alupa kings only from the times of the Western Calukya monarch Pulikeśin II.² But their kingdom is mentioned, as will be presently stated, in a record of Pulikeśin II's uncle and predecessor king Mangalesa. reference to the Alupas when taken in conjunction with the mention of Oloikhora (Aluvakheda)3 by Ptolemy and with the inclusion of the Alupa kingdom among the Sapta Konkanas in the Prapañcahrdayam which, as we have seen above, is no doubt a work of uncertain date, enables us nevertheless to assert that the Alupas indeed existed as a ruling family from about the second century A.D. onwards. The Halmidi stone inscription, as will be narrated in the next chapter, definitely takes the history of the Alupas to the fifth century A. D. A further statement which goes to prove their antiquity is, as we shall narrate anon, their having been coupled with another ancient family of the Karnātaka-

^{1-2.} E. I., IX. p. 15.

^{3.} The term Aluvakheda or Alvakheda, as it is given in some inscriptions, evidently refers to the early days of Alupa history when the Alupa kingdom was only a Kheda or Kheta, a territorial subdivision mentioned in Karnātaka epigraphical records after a Nagara but before a Kharvata. Read Saletore, Social and Political Life, I, p. 292. But the Vāyu Purāna places the Kheta before a Nagara. Vāyu Purāna Ch. VIII. vv. 100, seq. p. 27 (Poona, 1905). The words Alupa is spelt variously thus—Aluka, Alupa. Alva, Alva and Aluva—in the inscriptions. B. A. S.

the Gangas—in an inscription of the early half of the seventh century A. D. The Gangas, like the Alupas, ruled from the second century A.D., their territory being confined to the western parts of modern Mysore. The claims for antiquity to which the Alupas and the Gangas are thus entitled in the above record of Pulikesin II are further corroborated in a later record also of the seventh century which not only classes the Gangas and the Alupas together but characterizes them as ancient royal families which, as Rice correctly says, were entitled to special consideration. For this inscription also of a Western Cālukya ruler—Vinayāditya—styles the conquered royal families thus—Āluva-Gangādyaih maulaih samabhrtyatām nītāh.

2. THE DERIVATION OF THE NAME ĀLUPA

The assertion of the Madras Government Epigraphist (Mr. G. Venkoba Rao) that the cognomen (Ālupa) must be derived from the root $\bar{a}|u$ (Tamil— $\bar{a}|$) meaning thereby to govern, seems, in our opinion, to be both arbitrary and unhistorical. Hultzsch, and not Fleet, as Mr. Venkoba Rao writes, was the first to give us this derivation of the word Ālupa. But we cannot conceive of great rulers of the Karnātaka, as for example the Western Cālukyas, characterizing the Ālupas by

^{1.} Rice. My. & Coorg, p. 29. Mr. Govind Pai dates the commencement of the Ganga rule in the south to A.D. 250. Karnāṭaka Historical Review, II, p. 29.

^{2.} Ep. Rept. of the Southern Circle for 1926-7, p. 106.

^{3.} E. I., IX, pp. 15-16.

the epithet maulāh and enlisting their co-operation as allies, had the Tuluva kings been only of inferior stock like those who traced their origin to a word signifying nothing but dependence. The erroneous nature of the argument put forward by the defenders of the above theory is apparent when we level two other considerations against it. The Dravidian derivation does not take into account the earliest variant of the name Alupa occuring in inscriptions and the substantial evidence which both epigraphs and tradition go to prove it. And it rests on an alleged identity between the Alupas and minor local chieftains over the Ghats who possessed a similar name.

The earliest variant of the name Ālupa is that which is given in the Mahākūṭa inscription of king Mangaleśa dated A.D. 601-2. This epigraph relates that Kīrtivarma I (A.D. 566-597) conquered a great many kings among whom were the Pāndya, Cōliya, Āluka, and Vaijayantī. The word Āluka is an epithet of Śeṣa, chief of the serpent race; and, as Fleet rightly said, it may possibly denote the Nāgas, who in

^{1.} Fleet, I. A., XIX. pp. 14, 19. Mr. George Moraes gives the date of the Mahākūta inscription of Mangaleśa as A.D. 567. (Kadamba-Kula, p. 75, Bombay, 1931). This error was committed by me in my thesis (p. 298) entitled the History of Early Tuluva which secured for me the Kasinath Telang Gold Medal and Prize from the Bombay University in 1928. Mr. Moraes's remarks concerning the Western Cālukyas and the Ālupas (Kadamba-kula, pp. 75-78, 245) are nothing but a close following of my statements (Thesis, pp. 265, 298-300). The present treatise is an altogether new work, and has nothing in common with the thesis except a few facts here and there. B. A. S.

early times became included in the Cālukya dominions.¹ The Nāga origin of the Ālupas which is thus suggested here is proved by two facts—the figure of a hooded serpent which is found in an effaced Ālupa stone inscription in the Gollara Gaṇapati temple at Mangalore,² and the ultra-Saivite tendencies of which the Ālupas have given abundant proof in their inscriptions. We may incidentally remark here that there are good grounds for justifying the appellation of Aiorum Regio (Ahi-deśa) given to Tuluva and Haiva by Ptolemy.³

The Dravidian derivation of the name Ālupa rests on the alleged similarity between the Ālupa rulers and others who bore a similar name. Mr. Venkoba Rao says, no doubt following Hultzsch, in the same connection that the Cāngalvas were similarly chiefs of Canganād and Kongalnād in the Kannada country who flourished as feudatories in mediaeval times; and

- 1. Ibid. pp. 14-5; Dalal, A History of India from the Earliest Times, I., p. 206 (Bombay, 1924); Monier-Williams, Sanskrit-Eng. Dict., p. 130.
- Cf. Aygal, Dak. Prācīna Itihāsa, p. 66. A passage in the Padma Purāna may be said to refer to the Ālupas. It runs thus:— Kokuṭṭakāḥ tathā Cōlaḥ Kokaṇā-Manivālavāh ¡

Samangāḥ Kanakāḥ-ca-eva Kukurāngāra Māriṣāḥ II

Padma Purāṇa, Vol. I, Ch. VI, v. 55. p. 9 (Poona, 1893). The name

Maniavālavāḥ may be interpreted to mean Mani-ālavaḥ, i.e., Phaṇiālavāḥ, the Āluvas of the Nāga race. This is in some measure supported
by the variants of that name given in the same Purāṇa-Mani-Vālakaḥ,
and Mani-Vālukāḥ, and by the fact that these people are placed
immediately after the Kokanāh, i.e., the Konkanas. B. A. S.

3. Wilson, Mack. Coll., p. 35 (1832). Infra, Ch. V, Sec. 1.

that the Tamil word $n\bar{a}\dot{q}$ - $\bar{a}\dot{l}van$ "has also the analogous signification of a petty chieftain ruling over a restricted tract of territory $(n\bar{a}\dot{q}u)$, as in Nanji-nad-alvan, etc." This statement invalidates the evidence of inscriptions relating to the Alupas as given in Mr. Venkoba Rao's own collections and in those of his predecessors. The fact that, for instance, there were petty chieftains, like the Cangalvas, the Kongalvas, the Dattalvas, the Sallevalvas, and the Nadalvas over the Ghats is no argument to prove the Dravidian derivation of the word Alupa. Neither is the statement that because the Alupas were feudatories of the Western Calukyas and of some other prominent Karnataka rulers, we should trace their origin to the word signifying dependence—alu.

A few facts connected with the origin and history of Cangālvas, the Kongālvas, etc., would suffice to demolish this part of the fallacious theory. Rice pointed out the similarity in the name Ālupa, as occurring in the records found in the Koppa and the Sohrab tālukas, to the name Cangālvas, and ventured to say that the Cangālvas of the west of Mysore and east of Coorg may have been a branch of the Ālupas of Udayāvara. But he qualified his statement by saying that this was only a conjecture. The Cangālvas claimed descent from a

^{1.} Ep. Report of the Southern Circle for 1926, p. 106. It was Hultzsch who converted suppositions into facts, thus:—"Mr. Rice's volume contains many records of certain later families which seem to be connected with the ancient Alupas. These are the Cangāļvas, Kongāļvas, Nādālvas, Sāntaras, and the rulers of Kalasa and Kārkaļa." E. I., IX. p. 16. Rice never wrote such statements at all! B. A. S.

^{2.} Rice, E. C., IV, Intr., p. 16; ibid, VI, pp. 11-12.

king Cangalva who is supposed to have been a contemporary of Bijjalendra. The origin of the Alupas of Udavāvara is unknown, but it certaintly cannot be traced to Cangalva. The territory of the Cangalvas was Canganad (mod. Hunsur taluka in the Mysore State). The kingdom of the Alupas was a Six Thousand province. The biruda of the Cangalyas was Mahāmandles'vara. But the Alupas assumed elaborate and high sounding birudas, and, in some instances, imperial titles as well. The family god of the Cangalvas was the god Annadāni Mallikārjuna on the Bettadapura hill in the Hunsur tāluka; while the family deity of the Alupas was Siva (Bhairava) of the Sambhukallu temple in Udayāvara in the Udipi tāluka. The only point of resemblance between the Cangalvas and the Alupas is that like the latter the Cangaly as sometimes evinced a great desire to promote the cause of Jainism. This explains the inclusion of a word—āhāradāni (meaning āhārebhya-bhaisajya-s'āstradāna) in a record dated A.D. 1091 of the chieftain Cangalvadevaru alias Mariya Perggade Pilduvayya. But this similarity is of no avail in establishing the alleged identity between the Cangalyas and the Alupas.²

^{1.} My. Archl. Report for 1925. For a detailed account of the Cangalvas, read Rice, E. C., IX. Intr. pp. 19-20; My. & Coorg, pp. 141-144.

^{2.} On the history of the Kongālvas, read, My. & Coorg. pp. 144-5. The Alvādi Six Hundred over which Alva, who ruled in circa A.D. 750, and who fell when Colika Muttarasa rose, as mentioned in E. C., XII, Mi. 96, p. 113, need not be confounded with the Alva.

As regards the comparison made by the Madras Government Epigraphist between the Alupas and the Tamil rulers of Madura, we shall see in a later connection that it is equally fallacious. For the present we may observe that the fact of the occasional subservience of the Alupas to some of the most notable monarchs of the Karnātaka, cannot be seriously adduced in support of the alleged Dravidian origin of the word Alupa. There are instances of famous royal families, as, for instance, the Hoysalas, who at first acknowledged the supremacy of more powerful rulers but who rose to great prominence afterwards. The Alupas, although by no means endowed with the vigour and magnificence of the Hovsalas, were nevertheless a royal family of considerable importance in the annals of both Tuluva and the Karnātaka.

The original home of these ancient rulers may now be located. Mr. Venkoba Rao writes thus:—"They originally held possession of Edevolal to the north-east of Banavāsi; and appear to have subsequently extended their dominions into the adjoining territory known as Alvakheda in the northern portion of the present

kheda of the Āļupas of Udyāvara. The Āļvādi chieftains were of local origin and subordinate to the Ganga Pallavas. E. C., ibid, Intr. p. 7. An equally futile attempt has been made by some to trace the word Ālupa to the Kannada word Aļuve, meaning an outlet into the sea, suggesting thereby that since the earliest capital of the Ālupas, Udayāvara, was near the sea, they took their name from the word aļuve. M. Govinda Pai, Karnāta Sāhitya Pariṣad, XIII, p. 102, seq. This fanciful derivation does not rest on any cogent grounds. B. A. S.

^{1.} My. & Coorg., p. 96.

South Kanara district. Their headquarters which were at one time Pombuccha (Humca in the present Mysore State), appear to have been later on shifted to Bārakūru, the Bārahkanyāpura of the inscriptions... when the later Sāntara chiefs had encroached upon the territory round about Humca".

One fails to see how the above statements came to be written. Evidently some of them are to be traced to the following conjectures of Hultzsch, who, while editing the Udayāvara inscriptions of the Alupa rulers in the Epigraphia Indica, wrote thus: "That Citravāhana, whom the second Kigga inscription mentions as residing at Humcha, may or may not be identical with this Citravāhana II, but must be distinct from Citravāhana I, whose capital was probably Banavasi. If this identification is correct, Pombucchu, the modern Humcha, would have been the headquarters of the Āļuvakheda Six Thousand. This Humcha seems to have been the capital of the Ālupa kings".

The original home of the Alupas was not certainly Edevolal; they did not extend their territory from Edevolal to the coast; and Bārakūru was never their first capital in Tuluva. These are the statements which we shall now prove with the aid of the inscriptions of the Alupa rulers found both in Tuluva and over the Ghats. Of the seventy-eight stone epigraphs and copper-plate grants hitherto discovered in con-

^{1.} Ep. Rept. of the S. Circle for 1926, p. 106.

gli 2. E. I., IX, pp. 16-17.

A. K. 5

nection with the Alupa rulers, only seven (three of them being copper-plates) hail from the regions over the Ghats. The remaining seventy-one have been found exclusively within the boundaries of ancient Tuluva. Udayāvara itself claiming fourteen epigraphs. As regards the seven records found in the Mysore State. six deal with the early Alupas, and one with a later ruler of the same dynasty. And of the six former, one merely mentions an Alupa king in connection with a Kadamba ruler; another speaks of an Alupa king ruling over the Kadambamandala, and vet another one speaks of his son as ruling over Pombuccha; while of the remaining three, two deal with the grants issued by the Western Calukya monarch Vinayaditya, and one with the action which the Rāstrakūta king Prabhūtavarsa Govinda took to quell a revolt on the part of the ruler of Alvakheda Six Thousand. There is nothing in the above six records to suggest in the least that Edevolal was the original home of the Alupas. The seventh record may be dismissed as pertaining to an Alupa ruler of the first half of the fourteenth century A.D.

Another consideration may be adduced in support of the contention that neither Edevolal nor Banavāsi was the early capital of the Ālupas. We may recall here the victories of king Kīrtivarmā I as given in the Mahakūta pillar inscription of king Mangalesa. Here Āluka and Vaijayantī are mentioned separately. If the Ālupas had Vaijayantī or Banavāsi as their early

capital, it would not have been mentioned apart from Aluka. Moreover, we cannot conceive of the Alupas being masters of Banavāsi in the second or third century A.D., when the early Kadambas were already in possession of that city and its neighbourhood. As to how the Alupas came to be ruling over the Kadambamandala and Pombuccha, it is a point we shall try to elucidate in a subsequent connection.

Finally, we may note that had the Alupas been in possession of Banavasi prior to their having been lords of Udayavara, they would never have called themselves Cambukallu (S'ambhukallu) Bhattarakas, especially in an inscription which both historically and palaeographically belongs to the same age to which the records referring to their alleged Banavasi origin have been assigned by Hultzsch. The absence of the reference to the god Madhukeśvara of Banavāsi-the family god of the Kadambas—in any of the records of the Alupas hitherto discovered proves their non-Banavāsi origin. That in one or two inscriptions mention is made of the confirmation of tolls granted to the Pasupata Lord of Patti (i.e., Humccha) and to Udavāvara is no argument to affirm that the Alupas came originally from Pombuccha. Indeed, it appears to us, as we shall presently make it clear, that the fact of one of the soldiers, who fought and fell on behalf of a Udayavara king, having been distinctly mentioned as an adherent of the Pasupata

^{1.} My. & Coorg., pp. 21-2.

Lord of Patti, has been interpreted to mean that the Alupa ruler himself was a devotee of the Pasupata Lord of Humccha! Such a confusion is not warranted by any of the epigraphs under review.

3. THE EARLY ALUPAS

We may now attempt to locate the various Alupa rulers mostly on the basis of their own records, and in one or two instances, on those of their contemporaries over the Ghats. While the above remarks indisputably establish the antiquity of the Alupas, it must be confessed that no direct evidence from epigraphs is forthcoming to prove their existence prior to the times of the Kadamba ruler of Bhatari-kula. The antiquity of the Alupas which is thus vouchsafed for by the Halmidi stone inscription is further borne out by the reference to the Alupas in the epigraphs of the remarkable early Western Calukya monarch Kirtivarma whose conquests, we may be permitted to repeat, included Aluka Vaijavanti. The reference here is only to the dynasty and kingdom and not to the name of the Alupa ruler. We asume that the relations between the Western Calukyas and the Alupas remained the same under Kīrtivarmā's brother and successor Mangaleśa Ranavikrama (A.D. 597 608). The fact of the Alupas and the Gangas having drunk "the nector of close attendance" on the great Pulikeśin II Satyāśraya (A.D. 609-642), as is narrated in an inscription dated A.D.

^{1.} I. A. XIX. pp. 14, 19, op. cit.

634-5,¹ only confirms our surmise concerning the submission of the Ālupas to the early Western Cālukyas. What precisely were the relations between them and the Ālupas when Pulikeśin's third son and successor Vikramāditya I reigned (A.D. 655-680),² we do not know. Not till we come to Vikramāditya I's son and successor Vinayāditya Satyāśraya (A.D. 680-696) do we meet with the first prominent historical figure in Ālupa history from whom we argue backward thus, in order to locate his predecessors from Kīrtivarmā I's time till that of Vinayāditya Satyāśraya.

This Alupa contemporary of Vinayāditya Satyā-śraya, on whose epigraphs we construct the history of some of the early Alupa rulers, was Citravāhana whom we style the first of that name. Four inscriptions concerning him have been discovered. Of these two were issued under the command of his suzerain, the third deals exclusively with him, and the fourth belongs to his predecessor and father. These four inscriptions are the following:—the copper-plate grant from the Sohrab tāluka dated June 22nd A.D. 692; the second is another copper-plate found at Harihara in the Dāvaṇagere tāluka dated A.D. 694; the third is a stone inscription found at Kigga (Kigga hōbļi) in the Śringeśvara temple, Koppa tāluka, assigned to circa A.D. 675; and the fourth on the back of the same stone in the same

^{1.} I. A., V. p. 67 seq; VIII. p. 237; Archl. Survey of Western India, III. p. 129; E. I. VI. p. 10.

^{2.} My. & Coorg., p. 63.

place but dealing with Citravahana's father about whom we shall presently deal.

The copper-plate grant dated June 22nd A.D. 692 relates the following:—that Vinavaditva Satvaśrava commanded all the people thus—that when six hundred and fourteen Saka years had passed, and the eleventh year of the monarch was current, his victorious camp being located at the village of Citrasedu in the Toramara visava (details of the date being given), at the request of the Alupa ruler Gunasagara's son the illustrious Mahārāja Citravāha—, to Divākaraśarmā, son of Sankarasarma and grandson of Nagasarma, of the Dēvarāta Kausika-gotra, proficient in the Rg Veda, was given the village named Salivoge in the Edevolal visaya, to the north-east (quarter) of Vaijayanti, with the pouring of water and presentation of coin, not to be entered (into) by soldiers and free from all molestation, etc. The concluding lines of the same record may be noted:—by the great minister for peace and war (mahā-sandhi-vighrahika) Rainapunya Vallabha was the s'asana written1.

For our immediate purpose we may observe the following:—that in the above record of the Western Cālukya monarch the Ālupa ruler is called the illustrious (S'rī) Mahārāja Citravāha, that his father's name was Guṇasāgara, and that the place where Vinayāditya Satyāśraya encamped and where Citravāha presented

^{1.} E. C., VIII. Sb. 571, p. 92; I. A., XIX, p. 152.

him with a petition was Citrasedu in the Gooty

The same Western Calukya ruler complied with another request of the same Alupa king three years later at a place mentioned in the following copper plate grant hailing from Harihara in the Davanagere taluka, and dated A. p. 694. This record affirms that Vinayaditya Satyāśraya, by whom the Pallavas, Kalabhras, Keralas, and others were brought into service equally with the Aluvas, Gangas and others of old standing (Aluva-Gangādyaih maulaih samam bhrtyatām nitāh) commanded all people thus: That six hundred and sixteen Saka years had passed and the fourteenth year of the king's increasing victorious reign was being current, his victorious camp being situated at a village of Karañjapatra, in the neighbourhood of Hareşapura (which may have been Harihara itself), at the full moon in Kārtika, on the application of Śrimat Āļuva Rāja, to Śrīśarmā Somayāji's grandson, and Māraśarmā's son Iśanaśarmā, well versed in the Vedas and Vedāngas, was given in village of Kiru-Kāgāmāsi in the Edevolal visava of the Vanavasi district together with the prepared and unprepared tract to the west of Per-Kāgāmāsi (with details).2

Since only two years elapsed after the granting of the Salivoge village by the same monarch, and since the Harihara grant also refers to an endowment to a

^{1.} Ep. Rept. for 1921, p. 87.

^{2.} E. C. XI. Dg. 66, pp. 62-3, 144.

learned Brahman, we deduce that the Āļuva Rāja mentioned in the latter grant was no other than Citravāhana himself. As regards the biruda Mahārāja not being found in it, we may observe that it was compensated for by an epithet of equal, or perhaps greater; signification-maulāḥ. The donee was of course an altogher different person to the one mentioned in the Sohrab grant. Two more considerations may be made from the two records:—the Mahārāja Citravāha, or Āļuva Rāja, was a patron of learning. He seems to have been particularly in the good grace of his suzerain. Both the villages granted by Vinayāditya Satyāśraya-Sālivoge and Kiru-Kāgāmāsi—were included in the Edevolal viṣaya of the Banavāsi district.

The third inscription found in Kigga in the Koppa tāluka relates that when Citravāhana was ruling Pombuccha, and Nāgenna was the officer of Killa, the paddy produce, cow's milk, bullock of the god Kilgāņeśvara, excepting the attendants of the gods, no one else (was permitted) to enjoy. Those who enjoyed this, and he who caused it to be enjoyed would remove the burden from the devedittiyar and the sāer, and take the produce, were to be held as consecrated to the thirty-three (i. e. gods). The incription gives further interesting details which will be utilized in a later connection.

The identification of the Citravāhana mentioned in the above stone inscription with the illustrious Mahārāja Citravāha of the Sohrab plate and the Āļuva Rāja

^{1.} E. C. VI, Kp. 37, p. 82.

of the Harihara plate, and the date to which this Kigga stone inscription can be assigned, can be determined by comparing the last epigraph with what is narrated on its back. The inscription on the reverse of the Kigga stone narrates that when Aļu-arasa, with the second name of Guṇasāgara, was ruling the Kadambamaṇḍala,—Āļu-arasa, the Mahā Devī, and Citravāhana,—on Kundavarmarasa coming to his end, granted to the Kilgāṇa god everything free of all impos s (svasti s'rīmatu Āļu-arasar Guṇasāgarādvitī ya-nāmadheyan Kadamba-maṇḍalamaṃ āļuttam Āļu-arasaruṃ Mahā-deviyaruṃ Citravāhanaruṃ Kundavarm-arasaṃ mudime-geye.)¹

In the above record we have the following important details: Āļu-arasar, with his second name Guṇa-sāgara, mentioned with his queen who is merely called Mahā Devī and with his son Citravāhana; the death of Kundavarmarasa; and the granting of certain imposts to the Kīlgāṇa god. The first statement concerning Citravāhana's father being called (Āļu-arasar with the second of) Guṇasāgara strikingly corroborates the statement in the two grants of Vinayāditya Satyāśraya cited above. As regards the Kīlgāṇa god to whom Āļu-arasar Guṇasāgara made some endowment, it was the same god mentioned above on the obverse of the stone under the name Kīlagāṇeśvara. All these four records, therefore, refer to one and the same Citravāhana and to his father Āļu-arasar Guṇasāgara.

^{1.} E. C. VI., Kp. 38, pp. 82-3.

We have next to identify one of the figures—Kundavarmarasa-mentioned in the above record from Kigga, and the date to which the epigraphs on the obverse and reverse of the stone are to be assigned. As regards Kundavarmarasa, Rice wrote thus:-"We can hardly be wrong in assuming that Kundavarmarasa (vide Kp. 38) was a Kadamba: and it would seem as if he were a representative of the family, who had retired to a life of seclusion in the retreat of a temple at Kigga, where this inscription was found." This is an entirely gratuitous assertion not in keeping with the sense of the inscription under review. Instead of assuming that Kundavarma was a Kadamba ruler, we believe that he was Ālu-arasar Gunasāgara's father, and, therefore, Citravahana's grandfather. It was on the death of his father that Alu-arasar Gunasagara together with his queen and son repaired to the god Kilgana and gave to the temple certain endowments. We cannot imagine an Alupa, or a non-Kadamba, king giving imposts to a temple on the death of a person who, as Rice imagines, belonged to the Kadamba stock. The name Kundavarma is not unknown to Alupa genealogy: it was borne later on by an Alupa ruler.

Now to fix the two Kigga inscriptions chronologically, we argue thus:—Rice has assigned both the inscriptions to circa A.D. 675, on grounds which cannot be understood.² Supposing we accept the date given

^{1.} E. C. VI. Intr. p. 5.

^{2.} Rice's uncertainty is apparent when he assigns the same Kp. 37 to A.D. 690! *Ibid.* p. 10.

to the Kigga inscription 37 (i. e., the one on the obverse of the stone) as correct, we cannot conceive of Citravahana ruling over Pombuccha and of his father Aluarasar Gunasagara ruling over the Kadambamandala in one and the same year. We have, therefore, to assume the contrary to be the truth, viz., that Citravahana succeeded to the mastery of the Kadambamandala over which Alu-arasar Gunasagara had ruled for some time We know that the earliest date for Citravahana I is A.D. 692. It is not improbable that he may have ruled over Pombuccha a few years earlier, viz., in A.D. 675, This would mean that his reign lasted from A.D. 675 till A.D. 694 or thereabouts. If we assign twenty-five years to Aļu-arasar Guņasēgara, we come to A.D. 650 when he may have been in the presence of the god Kīlgāņa along with his queen Mahā Devī and Citravahana. This would mean that the reverse of the Kigga stone inscription (Kp. 38) has to be assigned to A.D.650.

If this is accepted, then, Aļu-arasar Guṇasāgara's father Kundavarmarasa may be assigned to the year A.D. 625. The identity of the three successive kings is as follows:—

Dg. 66 dated AD 694	Sohrab Plates dated A.D. 692	Kigga 37 dated A.D. 675	Kigga 38 dated circa 650
			Kunda- varmarasa
	Guṇasāgara		Āļu-arasar Gunasāgara
Šrīmat Āļuva Rāja	Šrīmat Mahā- rāja Citravāha	Citravāhana	Citravāha

There is one point in regard to the above rulers which still remains to be solved. And that is, how they, especially Āļu-arasar Guṇasāgara and his son Citravāhana, come to be in possession of the Kadambamaṇḍala. Rice remarked thus as regards this question:—"Why the king Āļu-arasar Guṇasāgara was in the possession of the Kadambamaṇḍala we do not know. No overlord is mentioned." Then again he wrote, while dealing with Citravāhana, thus:—"Why Citravāhana was ruling from Pombuccha, which was the Śāntāra capital, does not appear.""

But the acquisition of the Kadambamandala and with it of Pombuccha was not accidental. A few facts concerning the history of the Western Cālukyas will make this clear. The Aihole-Meguti inscription of Pulikeśin II dated Śaka 556 (A.D. 634-5) informs us that Kīrtivarmā I subjugated the Kadambas; and that the conquests of Pulikeśin II himself also included that of the Kadambamandala. The former statement relating to Kīrtivarmā I is corroborated by the undated Old-Kannada inscription found at Adūr (the ancient

^{1. &}amp; 2. E. C. VI, Intr. pp. 5, 10. Hultzsch's conjectures regarding the two Citravāhanas are to be discarded. He makes an equally untenable statement, viz., that Citravāhana, whom he calls the I of that name, granted the two villages in the Edevolal visaya. E. I. IX, p. 16. Mr. Moraes conjectures thus:—"It is possible that Pulikeśin II after reducing the Kadambas to subjection, wished to render them incapable of further mischief by completely destroying their power." To realize this he divided their territories among the Ālupas, who received the Kadambamandala, and the Sendrakas, who secured the Nāgarakhanda division. Kadamba-kula, p. 76. But those are merely suppositions. B. A. S.

Pāṇḍipura) in the Dharwar district, in the heart of the Kadamba territory, and by the Vokkalēri plates dated A.D. 757, both of the king Pulikeśin. The unprecedented success of the Western Cālukya arms under Pulikeśin II brought in an interesting feature in the history of the dealings of the Karnāṭaka rulers with their neighbours in the south and in the east. About this time there was the coalition among the non-Karnāṭaka rulers following the conquests of the Pallavas of Kañci, the Colas, the Keralas, and the Pāṇḍyas by that illustrious Western Cālukya monarch. The Pallavas aided by the Cola, Kerala, and Pāṇḍya kings drove the Western Cālukyas to a region below the Ghats, and even succeeded in destroying their capital Vātāpi or Bādāmi.

The temporary humiliation which the Western Cālukya family suffered at the hands of the confederacy of the Tamil, Pandya and Kerala rulers was retrieved by Pulikeśin's third son Vikramāditya I Raṇarasika. This ruler seized Kañci, conquered all the allies of the Pallavas, and acquired for himself the regal splendour of his father. Among the confederates of the Pallavas were the Kalabhras.

If we provisionally accept the identification of the Kalabhras with the Kadambas, we have a clue to the understanding of the problem concerning the possession

^{1.} Rice, My. & Coorg. p. 64; E. C., X, Kl. 66, pp. 15-17; Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dist. pp. 20-1, 23-4.

W 2. Rice, *ibid*, p. 65, n. (1); *JRAS* for 1929, p. 138. On the relations between the Western Cālukyas and the Pallavas, read Fleet; *ibid*, pp. 26-28.

of the Kadambamandala by Alu-arasar Gunasagara and by his son Citravahana I. Obviously after the repeated conquest of the Kadambas by Kīrtivarmā I and again by Pulikeśin II, they had joined hands with the Pallavas, the Colas, the Keralas, and the Pandyas. only road along which the Keralas, who were the western allies of the Pallavas, could advance against the Western Calukyas was either through Alvakheda or the Ghat region across the Kongu country. If Pombuccha—which later on became the capital of the Santalige Thousand-and the Kadambamandala were entrusted to the charge of the Alupas, who were the hereditary allies of the Western Calukyas, the latter could not only safeguard their territory against an attack by the Keralas but direct safely their attention against the Pallavas along the eastern frontier.

This not only explains why in the reign of Vikramāditya I Raņarasika (A.D. 655-680) we find Āluarasar Guṇasāgara over the Kadambamaṇdala but justifies the date we have given for him, viz., A.D. 650. Further, it also explains the marked favour which Vinayāditya, who again arrested "the extremely exalted power of the Pallavas, the lords of Kañci" and brought them under his subjection along with their old allies the Colas and Pāṇdyas, showed to Citravāhana I on two occasions, as mentioned above.

^{1.} The Kigga inscription Kg. 37 mentions a Senavarasa along with the dharma-karanika under the Alupa ruler Citravāhana. We cannot identify the Senavarasa mentioned in this record. But the following considerations, if corroborated by other sources, would not

Two new stone records have now to be examined in order to determine the predecessors of Kundavarmarasa, the grandfather of Citravahana I. Of these the first was found in front of the Sambhukallu Bhairava temple at Udayavara. The ruler is called merely Śrī Māramma Ālvarasar. Two towns are mentioned in this record—Kolalanagara and Odevura. The former is to be identified with what is now called Kolalagiri on the other side of Suvarna river in the Uppuru grāma; and the latter is the earliest variant of only prove the identification of Senavarasa but confirm our deduction concerning the contemporaneity of Alu-arasar Gunasagara with Vikramāditya I. There is a Senavarasa ruling over Banavase 12,000 under the Western Calukya Vikramaditya Satyasraya. (E. C. VIII. Sb. 381, p. 67). The inscription which gives us this detail has been for reasons not intelligible, assigned by Rice to A.D. 1010. There are two rulers who were called Vikramaditya Satyaśraya: Pulikeśin II's third son, with whom we have been hitherto dealing, was called Vikramāditva Satyāśraya. His own and his father's conquests justified his title. His great grandson was also called Vikramāditva II Satyāśraya. Two inscriptions of this ruler found at Pattadakal inform us that he three times conquered the Pallavas of Kañci. (Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dt., p. 29). Among the later Western Calukvas is also a Vikramaditva—the most brilliant of the later rulers. this ruler did not assume the second name of Satyaśrava, we may reject the date circa A.D. 1010 given to Sb. 381 by Rice. Therefore, the Vikramāditya Satyāśraya mentioned in that record must refer either to the first or the second of that name. We believe that it refers to Vikramāditya I Satyāśraya since it explains the association of the Kadambas with him and the appearance of the Alupa ruler Aluarasar in the Kadambamandala. It was because the Kadambas had sided with the Pallavas that Vikramādaitya I Satyāśraya removed Senavarasa from Kadambamandala and gave it to his Alupa ally. Whether this Senavarasa is to be identified with king Senavara Arkkesari, who is mentioned in a record assigned to circa A.D. 700 by Rice (E. C., VII. Sk. 278, p, 145), we cannot make out. The name Senavara still survives among the Bunts of Tuluva. B. A. S.

Udayāvara, the capital of the Alupas. The Goravaru spoken of in this record are no other than the Sthānikas.

The following considerations prompt us to assert that the ruler mentioned in the above Sambhukallu inscription is one of the earliest kings of Udavavara. He is styled merely Śrī Māramma Āļvarasar. Like most of the early rulers of Karnātaka royal houses, for example, those of the Hoysala, Santara, and Vijavanagara families, this Alupa king has no birudas prefixed to his name. He cannot be compared with the Alupa kings who bore a similar name, viz., Māramma Āluvarasar, since they bore elaborate birudas, while he had none. The record in question ends plainly without the name of the scribe. And the archaic language of the inscription, as is proved not only by its tenor but especially by the manner in which Udayavara is written, clearly indicates that the ruler Srī Māramma Ālvarasar preceded Kundavarmarasa.

^{1.} The inscription reads thus:—Svasti Sri Māramma Āļvarasar Koļala-nak rakke Karasi-Nāygen-āļā Kāyisi (do) Odevura nek-ra se kitta sakala—śrī āļgal Goraveru. 99 of 1901; S. I. I., VII, No. 283, p. 144. The suffix giri given to Kōļalnagara by the people now is unintelligible. It is a small hilleck and it contains the ruins of a temple which was destroyed by the Roman Catholics in 1926 or thereabouts. The images of Kṛṣṇa were thrown into the Suvarṇā river by the miscreants, but were recovered by Mr. Timmarpa Hegde, a wealthy Bunt land-owner who bought the adjoining property. The people assert that the Roman Catholic priest of the Church at Koļalagiri is in possession of one of the two images wrecked by the Roman Catholics. He however denied this when I questioned him on Dec. 12th 1932. Nothing is more regrettable than that under the aegis of the British such acts of vandalsim, if true, should have been committed! B. A.S.

The ancient S'ambhukallu temple at Udavāvara with the Nandi in front

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The tendency to prefix elaborate titles is seen in an inscription also found in the same Sambhukallu temple at Udavāvara. This record is likewise in Old Kannada. The ruler mentioned in it is also called Srīmat Aluvarasar. But he cannot be identified with Māramma Ālvarasar spoken of above for the following reasons:—Unlike the latter, he has many birudas. He is styled Danda Vibhūta-vistīrna Pitāmaha-avalokana Samvardhita Kulābhimāna Sakaļa S'rīmat Aļuvarasarum. The second biruda, we may incidentally observe, pitamaha-avalokana (One who was looked upon with affection by his Grandfather), suggests that the Alupa genealogy may be carried one generation beyond Sri Māramma Ālvarasar. Our surmise is strengthened by the Halmidi stone inscription which actually mentions an Alupa king. But beyond this nothing can be said for the present.

There are two other considerations which compel us to place this Śrīmat Āļuvarasar after Māramma Āļvarasar. The record gives the name (of the capital) Udipura, speaks of the seventy okkalu (citizens), the god Śambhukallu, and ends more elaborately than the inscription of Māramma Āļvarasar thus:—mī (ī) dharmmam (a) n aļivān Bāranāsiyan aļidān-vasuvan-pārvarum-kondān tammabbeyoļbam (ļdam?) pañca-mahā-pātakamam-geydon-idu cāndrādityakaļ-uļļin nilpudam. Moreover, the name of the scribe-Śri Kāļādityan-who wrote this epigraph (daregoļānman-baredān), suggests that this ruler

^{1. 96} of 1901; S. I. I., VII. No. 279, p. 143.

came after Māramma Āļvarasar but before the Ālupa ruler to be mentioned soon, since his inscription does not contain at the end the reference to Sivahalli, and especially to the acquisition of the fruit of horse-sacrifice so characteristic of the inscriptions of the rulers who came after Citravāhana I. We have placed Kundavarmarasa I in circa A. D. 625. Judging by the same standard as that adopted for him and his son, Āļu-arasar Guṇasāgara, and his grandson Citravāhana I, we arrive at the following dates for the predecessors of Kundavarmarasa. This, as we shall see, fits in very well with the genealogy of the Ālupa rulers:—

Māramma Āļvarasar A.D. 575. | | Sakala Śrīmat Āļuvarasar A.D. 600.

The Alupa rulers hitherto mentioned and their Western Calukya overlords may, therefore, be thus arranged:—

The Alupas The Western Calukyas Māramma Ālvarasar Kirtivarmā I A.D. 575. A.D. 566-A.D. 597. Mangaleśa (brother) Sakala Śrīmat Āļuvarasar A.D. 600. A.D. 597-A.D. 608. Kundavarmarasa Pulikeśin II (son of Kīrtivarma II) A.D. 625. A.D. 609-A.D. 642. Vikramāditya I (son) Alu-arasar Guņasāgara (son) A.D. 655-A.D. 680. A.D. 650. Citravahana I (son) Vinayēditya I (son A.D. 675-A.D. 700 A.D. 680-A.D. 696.

4. CIVIL WAR IN UDAYĀVARA

The reign of Citravāhana I witnessed a civil war in Udayāvara. Details concerning this interesting strife are gathered from stone inscriptions found near the Sambhukallu temple and in a private garden in Udayāvara, in the Mahālingeśvara temple at Kōta, also in the Udipi tāluka, at Kariyangaļa and in the Durgā Parameśvarī temple—the former near, the latter in, Poļali Ammunije in the Mangalore tāluka. None of these inscriptions is dated. They can be properly adjusted only by a comparative study. Palaeographically they belong to the same age.

The situation seems to be the following:—We have seen that Citravahana I was away for a long time in the Kadambamandala. The Ālupa capital Udayāvara during his absence seems to have been entrusted to the charge of Ranasagara who may have been either the brother or a near relative of Citravahana I. That Ranasāgara was actually reigning in Udayāvara is proved by epigraphs. We then see Citravahana I attacking Ranasagara who, for some reasons, seems to have proved hostile to him. Ranasagara is beaten and he retires only to storm Udavāvara which falls into his hands. He is again attacked, this time by Svetavahana obviously on behalf of Citravahana I, who may have died by this time. What happens to Ranasagara we do not know. Svetavāhana in his turn is attacked by Prthvīsāgara who is crowned at Udayavara. His son Vijayaditya continues the succession assuming the title of Adhirāja.

The above is the only reasonable deduction from the Alupa epigraphs which otherwise are unintelligible and conflicting. We resume the narrative with Citravāhana I. It has been shown that his reign may have commenced in A.D. 675 when we find him ruling over Pombuccha. In A.D. 692 he was at Citrasedu with Vinayāditva Satyāśraya, and in A.D. 694, at Karañjapatra along with the same Western Calukya monarch. If our surmise is correct, he seems to have been away from his capital, Udayavara, for quite a long time, at least certainly from A.D. 692 till A.D. 694. Our assumption that he was the lord of Udayavara is proved by a record found in front of the Sambhukallu temple at Udayavara which not only calls him the Lord of the Earth (dhareg-is'an) but denies royal titles to his rival Ranasagara. This record will be presently cited.

That Raṇasāgara was not only ruling over Udayāvara but over the other parts of Āļvakheḍa as well is proved by two stone inscriptions, one of them found in the Sambhukallu temple at Udayāvara and the other, at Kariyangala near Polali Ammunije in the Mangalore tāluka. The Sambhukallu temple stone inscription records that in the reign of the Cambukallu Bhaṭṭāraka (i.e., Sambhukallu Bhaṭṭāraka) Śrī Raṇasāgara Āļupendra, certain regulations were made pertaining to the daily regulation of eighteen towns, and (that?) of Udayāvara. If the assumption that Citravāhana I was away in A.D. 675 is admitted, then, the

^{1. 100} of 1901 : S. I. I., VII, No. 284, p. 144.

above Sambhukallu record pertaining to the daily regulations in the reign of Ranasāgara Alupendra may be dated also in A.D. 675. Ranasāgara must have been placed over Udayāvara in that year by Citravāhana I.

An undated stone inscription also in Old Kannada found in Kariyangala near Polali, confirms our sufmise that Ranasāgara was indeed ruling loves Ālvakhedal This epigraph narrates that in a fight Nāgamma of the Kayya-vams'a, who was known as Sūdraka, destroyed the enemy; and that Ranasāgara made a gift in appreciation of his valour. Since it was only rulers who gave gifts on such occasions, we have to identify the Ranasāgara mentioned in this Kariyangala record with the Ranasāgara of the Sambhukallu inscription.

If this is granted, the following record found in the Durgā Paramesvari temple also at Polali Ammunije, is to be ascribed to the same ruler. This undated stone inscription records the death of Nanda Kamba in a battle with Alvar.²

There was consequently trouble in the reign of Raṇasāgara. From the fact that the above records were found at Polali Ammunije, we have to surmise that it was there that he first had to meet with opposition. On whose behalf Nanda Kamba fought and died, cannot be made out. But judged by the following record from Udayāvara commemorating the occupation of the city by Citravāhana I, we may say that it was on this ruler's behalf that Nanda Kamba fought. The un-

^{1. 379} of 1927-8. 2. 370 of 1927-8.

dated Udayāvara Šambhukallu stone inscription informs us that during the trouble of Raṇasāgara (Raṇa-sāgaraṇā s'am(sam)kaṭaduļ), the Lord of the Earth (dhareg-īs'an), viz., Citravāhana I, occupied and entered Udayapura (Udayapuram dhareg-īs'an paḍe poguralti). On this occasion Vijaṇa Nāyga's son Kāltide (whose bravery is extolled) fought and died on the side of Citravāhana.

The absence of any biruda to Raṇasāgara in this record from the Sambhukallu temple may be compared to the plain name Āļvar given obviously to the same ruler in the Durgā Parameśvarī inscription which mentions Nanda Kamba's death.

Citravāhana I's success was complete. He had justified his title of dhareg-īs'an. But Raṇasēgara was still powerful. This accounts for his re-entry into Udayāvara, and his successful defence against Svetvāhana. That Raṇasāgara re-entered Udayāvara is proved by an undated stone inscription found in the Mahālingeśvara temple at Koṭa in the Udipi tāluka. This epigraph records the death of Angupesāra Pōlegan, a servant of Judda (Yuddha?) Malla, when Raṇakisara entered Udayapura after fighting with dhareg-īs'an. Evidently the dhareg-īs'an of this Koṭa inscription was none other than the dharege-īs'an (Citravāhana I) of the Udayāvara Sambhukallu stone inscription mentioned above. It follows, therefore, that the name Raṇakisara

^{1. 94} of 1901; E. I. IX. p. 18. 2. 505 of 1928-9.

was either a second name of, or an engraver²s error for, Raṇasāgara.

An undated stone inscription found in Udayāvara confirms our surmise that the Raṇakisara mentioned above was no other than Raṇasāgara himself. This record states that when Raṇasāgara entered Udayapura, Nalimaṇi Nāga Dīkṣara Sāgara attacking, Nāpaḍe fought and died.¹

Citravāhana I's success cannot be determined. But Raṇasāgara's success was short-lived. This is inferred from the following two undated records which describe Svetavāhana as attacking Udayapura and the defeat of Raṇasāgara. The first stone inscription was found in the Sambhukallu temple at Udayāvara. It narrates that when Svetavāhana entered Udayapura, Pāṇḍyavillaras's son Dēvu (his praise) fought and died. Another stone inscription found near Rāmacandra Bhaṭṭa's house also in Udayāvara, substantiates our assumption that Svetavāhana fought against Raṇasāgara. This epigraph relates that when Svetavāhana entered Udayapura, Raṇasāgara's servant Viñja Praharabhūṣaṇa's son Kāmakōḍa (his praise) fell nobly fighting for his lord.

^{1. 108} A of 1901; S. I. I. VII., No. 293, p. 143.

^{2. 105} of 1901; E. I. IX. p. 15. Rangachari commits a blunder when he makes Svetavāhana son of Pāṇḍyavillarasa. A Top. List. II. p. 875. This error is to be traced to the Madras Govt. Epigraphist's Report for 1901, where the same is given!

^{3. 108} of 1901; E. I. IX., pp. 18-9. Again Rangachari wrongly states that Svetavāhana died in the reign of Ranasāgara! A Top. List. II. p. 8.5.

We cannot make out what happened to Ranasagara. Svetavāhana who opposed and probably killed him, may have been the son or a near relative of Citravahana I. Whatever that may be, it is evident that Svetavahana himself had to defend Udayavara against a new enemy. This was Prthvisagara who now stormed the Alupa capital. Three undated inscriptions which on palaeographical grounds may be assigned to the age of Svetavāhana, and found in the Sambhukallu temple, deal with the activities of Prthvīsāgara. One informs us that when Polokku Privacelva, who was the beloved servant of Prthvīsāgara, the glorious Ālupendra, was entering Udayapura, that Polokku Privacelva fell fighting. This record proves that Prthvisagara Alupendra had to struggle before he could become lord of Udayavara.

We corroborate our statement by another undated stone inscription also from the same place. It relates that when Pṛthvīsāgara, who is not given the biruda the "Glorious Āļupendra", had himself crowned (Pṛthvīsāgaran paṭṭam-gaṭṭisi Udyapurman poguta-palli) was entering Udayapura, Nadavilmudi's son Palpare died fighting.

But Prthvīsāgara won a complete victoy. We infer this from a third undated stone inscription found also in the same locality. The high sounding birudas which he assumed and the granting of tolls to two cities could

^{1. 101} of 1901; E. I. IX., p. 20,

^{2. 103} of 1901; E. I. IX., pp. 19-20.



The most of the Fort at Udayavara

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pendra, Parames'vara, Adhirājarāja, Uttama Pāṇḍya, Who Sprang from the race of the Moon, the Glorious Māramma Aļuvarasar, confirmed the tolls to the same cities of Pombulca (i.e., Humccha) and Udayāvara, at a later date.¹

- (a) The Sambhukallu stone record styled 99 of 1901 opens with svasti. The Sambhukallu inscription of Vijayāditya (97 & 98 of 1901) opens thus—Om svasti Śrī.
- (b) In 99 of 1901 the ruler is called merely Srī Māramma Āļvarasar. But in 97 ♂ 98 of 1901 he has elaborate birudas, and he is said to have been of the Lunar line.
- (c) In 99 of 1901 the name of the capital is given as Odevura which may have been the original name of the capital. But in 97 & 98 of 1901 the capital is called Udayapura.
- (d) In 99 of 1901 the town of Patti Pombuccha-which was not in the possession of the early Alupas,—is not mentioned. But in 97 & 98 of 1901 the tolls to this town are twice confirmed.
- (e) 99 of 1901 is more archaic and is simpler than the more florid and intelligible records 97 ℰ 98 of 1901.
- (f) 99 of 1901 mentions the Goravas (Sthānikas) evidently of Odevura. 97 & 98 of 1901 describe the eight-fold fruits of a horse-sacrifice and the sins of destroying Bāraṇāsi and Śivahalli.
- (g) Finally, no engraver is mentioned in 99 of 1901. But 98 of 1901 mentions Ranadhari as the scribe, while 97 of 1901 contains no name of the engraver. These considerations conclusively prove that the two rulers Sri Māramma Āļvarasar and Vijayāditya Ālupendra Māramma Āļuvarsar could never have belonged to one and the same age. Our assumption, therefore, that Sri Māramma Āļvarsar of 99 of 1901 belonged to an earlier age is fully justified. B. A. S.

^{1. 98} of 1901; E. I. IX p. 22. Read Hultzsch's remarks why this inscription is dated later than the preceding one. E. I. IX. pp. 23-4. The Māramma Āļuvarasar of these records (97 & 98 of 1901) was not the same Māramma Āļvarasar whom we have placed in circa A.D. 5/5 as the contemporary of Kīrtivarmā I. The following reasons prove our assertion:—

From the above records it will be seen that like Pṛthvīsāgara, Vijayāditya bore the names Alupendra and Uttama Pāṇḍya, and traced his descent from the Lunar race. Like Pṛthvīsāgara, Vijayāditya is called the Glorious (Māramma) Aluvarasar. These considerations together with the fact that Vijayāditya called himself Parames'vara and Adhirājarāja, lead us to the inevitable conclusion that he was the heir to a powerful principality from his father Pṛthvīsāgara Āļupendra. This explains why he twice confirmed the tolls to the cities of Paṭṭi Pombuccha and Udayāvara to which his father had granted tolls during the headmanship of Boygavarma.

The third inscription which belongs to the same monarch is that which was discovered in the Kōṭeśvara temple at Kōṭeśvara in the Kundāpūru tāluka. This is an undated and damaged stone record which merely registers a gift (of land?) for the worship and offerings of the god Subra(ma)ņi (Subrahmaṇya). The king is named Vijaya Deva Ā(ļpanṛ)pendra Deva.¹

Till now we have tried to fix the Alupas on the strength of their epigraphs. We may now assign dates to them according to the standard we have adopted above, namely, assigning twenty years to every one of the rulers. Citravāhana I's last date, based on epigraphical evidence, is, as we have seen, A.D. 694. It cannot be that he attacked Raṇasāgara while he was

^{1. 372} of 1927.

busy moving about in the company of his suzerain Vinayāditya Satyāśraya. Hence we have to suppose that he entered Udayāvara after A.D. 694. It has been made clear that he captured that city. We may, therefore, give five or six years more to Citravāhana I, This would mean that his reign began in circa A.D. 675 and ended in A.D. 700.

Raṇasāgara being his contemporary may be assigned to A. D. 710-A. D. 720; and Svetavāhana who attacked him, to A. D. 720-A. D. 730; Prthvisāgara Āļupendra, who in turn ousted Švetavāhana, may be placed in A. D. 730-A.D. 750; and his son Vijayāditya Āļupendra, who ruled over a secure kingdom, in A. D. 750-A. D. 770.

5. ALUPA RULERS FROM CITRAVĀHANA II

If the above deductions which are based on historical and palaeographical grounds are admitted, we come to the problem of the identification of the successor of Vijayāditya Āļupendra. He was Citravāhana whom we shall style as the second of that name. His age and name can be determined on the basis of a Rāṣṭrakūṭa record which will be discussed in connection with the foreign relations of the Ālupa rulers. Here it may be noted that the Citravāhana mentioned in the Rāṣṭrakūṭa record cannot be identified with Citravāhana I for the following reason:—The Ālupa rulers would not have stormed Udayāvara when the Rāṣṭrakūṭas had sent an army against one of them in order to punish him for a certain political offence. Hence we have to

reject the identification of the Citravāhana of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa inscription with Citravāhana I as originally given by Hultzsch and repeated by the Madras Government Epigraphist (Mr. Venkoba Rao), and the consequent confusion in the descent of the Ālupa rulers made by the latter, who makes Citravāhana II successor to Citravāhana I, followed by Śvetavāhana and Raṇasāgara.

Nothing can be determined concerning the successors of Citravāhana II for about a century. What we may venture to suggest, as will be pointed out later on, is that king Vimalāditya may have ruled over Ālvakheda in the precarious times that followed the reign of Citravāhana II. It is only in about A. D. 920-30 that we come across Ālva Raṇañjaya whose position in the Ālupa genealogy will be fixed with the aid of contemporary Śāntara records in the following chapter.

We presume that Āļva Raṇañjaya's successor was Dattāļpendra Śrīmāra whom we place in A. D. 959 on the strength of a solitary stone inscription found in the Someśvara temple at Mūḍukēri in Bārakūru. This inscription is undated but it mentions the ruler's spiritual adviser named Gagana Śiva Ācārya whose age will be discussed while delineating the religious history of Tuļuvanāḍu. The queen of Dattāļpendra Śrīmāra was called Odḍama Devī. ²

Dattālpendra Śrimāra's successor was Kundavarma Āļupendra (II). A unique inscription in Grantha script

^{1.} E. I., IX pp. 16-17; Ep. Report for 1926-7 pp. 106-7.

^{2. 124} of 1901; S. I. I. VII., No. 314, p. 165.

but in the Sanskrit language engraved on the pedestal of the image of Lokesvara in the Manjunatha temple at Kadri, near Mangalore, is the only record concerning this ruler. The inscription opens with svasti S'rī (Hail! Prosperity!) in the usual Alupa manner. ruler is praised thus:—That he was a sun to the lotus the Lunar race, One with an effulgent body, One with his chest rubbed with saffron from the breast of Laksmi the State. One who, endowed with great physical strength, protected the corners of the world shining in the moonlight of pure fame. One by whom the evil of drinking was made distant (i. e., removed), One who by his distinguished achievements. released the earth for the sake of the agraharas of Brahmans. One who by his valour recovered his kingdom after defeating traitorous wicked enemy (to whom he had given land [formerly])—such an Alupendra ruler named Kundavarma was equal to Karna in liberality, to Arjuna in valour, to Indra in wealth, and to Brhaspati in wisdom. And (he was also) virtuous. He was like a bee at the lotus feet of Balacandra S'ikhamari. When 4068 years (and) nine months had passed in the Kalivuga, and Jupiter was in Kanyā in the Rohinī naksatra on the afternoon (of the day) in an auspicious moment, (he) set up the image of god Lokeśvara in the beautiful vihāra of Kadirikā.1

^{1. 27} B. of 1901; Ep. Rept. for 1921, p. 8; S. I. I. VII. No. 191, p. 87.

The original runs thus:-

Svasti Šri | ŠrīmatSoma-kula-ambhojaravinā dīpta (te) jasā- | rāja-L. kṣmīkucā (lakta)k. lankī-kṛta-vakṣasā ||1|| uddāma-bāhuvīryena raksitā(h) ksiti-mandala (āh) |

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nişkı lenkeyasas-candracendrikā-vilasat-disā ||2||
surā-pānı krto de (do) şo yena rājñā nirākrt. h|
dvijānām-c gra-hārebhy. h-cāru-cāritr. şālinā (sālinā) ||3||
d. ttām-bhuvā (i m)-nirākrtya b. lāt-visvāsc ghātinām |
rājyam svabhu (jc)-vīryeṇa grh't. m yena māninā ||4||
so'y. m Kerna-sam. h-tyāgi (Pārtha)k. lpah perākrame |
Surendresedrsā Lakṣmyā Bṛh. sp. tisemo dhiyā ||5||
Śrīk und. varmā guṇava (vāl na (nā) eluven dro) mehīpatih |
pāda (ā) revind. -bhramero Bālecendra-Sikhāmaṇeh ||6||
keleu va (r) ṣasi h srāṇām-etikrānte e. tuṣ, ye (cetuṣṭi ye) |
pu nar. bde) g. te-ca-eva-(āpy...]ṣṭa-ṣi ṣṭyā semanvite ||7||
geteṣu nava-māseṣu Kenyāyām sim thite Gur. u |
peścime-h. ni Rohiṇyām muhū (r) te śubh -l. kṣaṇe ||8||
Lokeśvi r, sya devasya pr. tiṣṭhām-ek. rot-pr. bhuh |
SrīmatKe dirikāṇāmni vihāre sumenoh re || svasti śrī ||9||
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Mr. Govind Pai, who has edited this inscription in Kannada in the November issue of the now defunct Kernata Kesari, 1927, pp.131-141. has given an incorrect rendering of some of the words occurring in the inscription hus in verse (1) he writes k. Unkita when it ought to be k. l. 1.ki krt.; in verse (2) he writes ksitimend, lem when it ought to be kşitim. nd. lah; in verse (3) he write: krtaveso for krtodoso; in verse (4) he gives bhup, mirākrtya for bhuv, m; in verse (1) he writes Korn (n) -s. m. tyāge for K. rn. -sc mastyāgi and in the same verse he substitute: vāyuk. lp. h for Pertha; in verse (6) he gives Alupendro for Aluvendro; and in verse (1) he writes este-sesti for appesta-sastva. Mr. Pai has translated the name of the guru of the Alupa king thus: jed-yelli eledingelannu mudidukondiruva Śrī Śivena adidaveregola (bh. ktiyalli) dumbiyopādiy, lliruva Ālupa vemšeda odeyenāda Śrī Kundi verme nember gune vante nada me harajanu. This is how he translates verse (6) of the above inscription! xpressed in Kannada it ought to be the following: - gunavent, nade Śrī Kundeverma Aluvendra rāji nu Bālocondra Śikhāmoniya pādo-k moli gi lelli bhri meredi ntiruvanu. How far fetched Mr. Vai's translation is can be made out when we give one more specimen of his rendering. This concerns verse (1) which he gives thus in Kannada: - Svesti vibhevedind, odegūdiruva candrovomsavemba tāvorege nēs, rontiruvo tonna tēj, dind, holeyuttiruva (t. nno) rājyovemba L. ksmiya edege sov. riruva alotigeyinda b. ļediruva hrd y. deścewille. I translate this in the following manner: -svesti śri Candra-veriscoemba k. melekke süry, n. nt iruve ujvelevada dehe-kantivulla rāja-Leksmiya kuc. -kunkum, dirde mā ida edeyulla. Suffice it to The date works correctly to A.D. 968: January the 13th.

The next name we meet with in the Alupa genealogy is that of Bankideva Alupendra deva (I). evidence of contemporary foreign history and that of three stone inscriptions-two of which clearly deal with him although they are undated, and one dated record which we assign to him on historical grounds.-this ruler may be placed in the middle of the eleventh century A.D. A study of the Alupa-Santara alliance which will be described in detail in a later connection. gives us the date A.D. 1050 for Bankideva Alupendra. The two records which specifically mention this ruler were found in the Someśvara temple at Mūdukēri in Bārakūru. Both break off at the end but give us some details concerning the titles of the king and the territory over which he ruled. The epigraphs open with svasti and give the following birudas to the king:-Samasta-loka-eka-vyāpta-yas'o-vistārarum (One who had his fame spread uniformly all over the universe), Nija-

say that Mr. Pai has made matters unnecessarily more complicated by the use of imagination and antique phrases not warranted by the epigraph. He calls Lokeśvara Ādinātha! And by a roundabout way of reasoning, Mr. Pai arrives at A.D. 830 Jan. 8th Sat. as the year when Kundvarma installed this image of Lokeśvara! This, as is evident from the chronology given in this treatise, is impossible. In the interpretation of this inscription, I have received invaluable aid from my learned friend Pandit Venkatadāsa Ācārya of Udipi; and the text I have followed is that given in the S. I. I. VII. B. A. S.

^{1.} Swamikannu Pillai, Indian Ephemeris, II. p. 336. In S. I. I. VII, p. 87, the date is given as Kali 4168! Mr. Rama Rao adds the detail 13th January, a Sunday B. A. S.

dakṣiṇa-b (h)uja-daṇḍa (in one version ōrddaṇḍa) karavāļu eka sahāyarum āgi (One who felt confident in the use of the sword in his own right arm), Tuļu-viṣayadoļ nija-ājneyaṃ nilisi (One who established his own command in the Tuļu-viṣaya), Male-yēļum-Kombumnaļinal-eļu-Male-pā (ļ) par-ellamam (One who ruled over the territories comprising the Seven Male and the Seven Kombu), nija-svāmi (the Rightful Lord), Śrī Bankideva Ālupendra Devar, One record unfortunatley breaks off here, and the other after narrating the above birudas, continues to give a few details concerning what appears to be the military success of the ruler.

The statements occurring here, viz., that the Santalige Thousand was under him, and that the country was being ruled under the shadow of his sole umbrella-S'āntalige-sāyiramam eka-cchatra-cchāyeyim rājyam-geyyuttam mmalepa,—when taken in conjunction with the birudas of the ruler referring to his valour and his mastery over the Seven Male and the Seven Kombu, prove beyond doubt that Bankideva Ālupendra was enjoying complete independence in the middle of the eleventh century A.D.¹

An unfinished stone inscription found in the Sambhu-kallu temple at Udayāvara is supposed to belong to the reign of Bankideva Ālupendra on the following grounds:—It opens in the usual Ālupa manner with svasti but proceeds directly to give the date thus:—Sake (S'aka) nṛpa-kālātīta-samvatsara-sa(s'a)tangaļu 980 neya Viļambi-samvatsarada Caitra S'uddha Puṇṇame 16 neya

^{1. 135 &}amp; 137 of 1901; S. I. I. VII., Nos. 327, 328, p. 178.

adeyam(Va)ddavāradandu which agrees with A.D. 1058 March Friday the 15th, the week day however not corresponding. The inscription then continues thus:—Cokipāṭiya-baṭiyaṇṇam S'rīmān Ma(hāmaṇḍaleśvara) Rāja-Sāltiraṭṭa..risaṇa-daṇḍasā...and then breaks off. ¹

We know that Bankideva Ālupendra's date is A. D. 1050. This inscription which falls in A.D. 1058 can be referred only to him, since it is impossible to conceive of any other ruler exercising authority over the Āļvakheḍa during Bankideva Ālupendra's time. Moreover, if the biruda Mahāmanḍalika is substituted for Mahāmanḍaleśvara given by the Madras Government Epigraphist, and if the last words-risaṇa-daṇḍasā—are taken to be an error for dakṣiṇa-bhuja-daṇḍa, we may have some further grounds, perhaps, for assigning this inscription to the reign of Bankideva Ālupendra which seems to have extended from A. D. 1050 till A. D. 1070.

6. MEDIAEVAL ĀLUPAS

No direct evidence is forthcoming concerning the successor of Bankideva Ālupendra I. But on the strength of one inscription of Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra and on that of his son Bhujabala Kulaśekhara Ālupendra, we are able to assert that the ruler who succeeded Bankideva Ālupendra I was Udayāditya Pāṇḍya Paṭṭigadeva Ālupa, a king who is mentioned in the incomplete stone inscription found in the Durgā Parameśvari temple

^{1. 95} of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 2.8, p. 143; Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem., III. p. 118.

at Poļali Ammuņije. Here, however, the full name of the ruler is not given. He is styled ... Pāṇḍya Paṭṭigadeva Ālupa, thus proving beyond doubt that he was indeed an Ālupa king. The record, we may incidentally remark, mentions an artisan Biravadi Candaya. 1

Now, we may assert that Udavadityarasa, who is mentioned in the fragmentary record of Bhujabala Kavi Alupendra, is the same ruler whose name is given as... Pāṇdya Pattigadeva Ālupa on the strength of a later record found in the Nemiśvara basti, belonging to Alupa Jagadevarasa's (son and) successor Bhujabala Kulasekhara Ālupendra. This later record Kulaśekhara Ālupendra, which will be cited while describing the reign of that ruler, clearly gives the descent of Kulasekhara Ālupendra thus :--Pāndya Pattodeya followed by Pandya Ca (kravartin) Kavi, and then a ruler whose name is effaced in the record (but who was evidently Alupa Jagade varasa) followed by Kulasekhara. Since, according to our estimate, Udayadityarasa preceded Kavi Alupendra, it follows that Pandya Pattodeya was no other than Udayadityarasa. The last known date for Bankideva Alupendra I is A.D. 1058; and the earliest date for Bhujabala Kavi Alupendra is. as we shall presently see, A. D. 1134. We do not know whether Udayādityarasa Pāndya Pattigadeva (Pattodeya) Alupa ruled for fifty eight years; but it would not be far wrong to place him in about A. D. 1088.

^{1. 374} of 1927-8.

That Udayadityarasa Pandya Pattigadeva (Pattodeya) indeed reigned is proved by the many birudas given to him in the Nemīśvara basti inscription discovered at Varanga referred to above. They are the following:—svasti Samasta-bhuvana-vikhyāta, Pāndya-rājādhirāja, Parames'vara, Paramabhattāraka, S'aranāgata vaira, pañjara, ripu-rāja-kuñjara, Sāhitvāmara, Nāri-manorāma (?), Sangrāma-vīra, Catur-vidha-budha-jana (ra) (raidini?), Rāja-Bhārata-karnāvatamsa, Pandita Pāndva, Pāndvahamsa Javangana uttunga-sthanalingana Dhanañiava. prasanga. Sangararunga, Kēli-vinoda, ā...nā bālā-jana-manah kusumasara, Sarasvatī-karna-kundala-ābharana.Rana-ranga-S'ūdraka it vādi nama-upeta Soma-vamsa-(man) dalika (tilaka?) simhāsanaanantaram digantarāla-milita kīrti-ketti-Patti-odevam dustanighraha sista pratipalana paranagi raja-raksitam dharmam emba nadiyam kannadisi dharmavam sadya dim raksisidan...

The birudas Sangrāma vīra (Hero of battle), Jayāngaṇa uttanga-sthanālingana prasanga (One who was accustomed to embrace the lofty bosom of the Lady Victory), and Raṇa-ranga S'ūdraka (a S'ūdraka on the battle-field) suggest that the Ālupa ruler was noted for his martial exploits which unfortunately cannot be determined at present. The statement that Paṭṭoḍeya dharmam emba nadiyam kannadisi (caused the conduct of dharma to appear?) seems to imply that he championed the cause of the Hindu dharma.

^{1.} These passages from 526 of 1928-9 have been taken from the transcript of that inscription so kindly sent to me by Mr. K. N. Dikshit through the Superintendent of Epigraphy, Southern Circle,

His successor was Bhujabala Kavi Alupendra. Seven stone inscriptions dealing directly with Bhujabala Kavi Alupendra, and an eighth concerning one who seems to have been his vassal, have been discovered in the Udipi, Kundāpūru, and Kārkala tālukas. The earliest opens merely with svasti, and is dated Sa ('Sa) ka (varsa) 1036 neva Vijava Sam (va) cch (ts) aradalu which evidently stands for Saka 1035 expired (A.D. 1113-4), since the cyclic year for Saka 1036 was Java, and for Saka 1035 (1113-4) Vijava. It then mentions directly that in the reign of Kāvyālpendra (i. e., Kavi Ālupendra) Manda...(U) devāditvarasara, and then breaks off after a few words. It is from this inscription found in the Sambhukallu temple at Udayāvara that we determine that Udavādityarasa was Kavi Ālupendra's (father and) predecessor.

Another stone inscription of Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra found in the Vināyaka temple at Uppūru, Udipi tāluka, is doubly interesting. It not only calls the king by another name—Pāṇdya Cakravarti—but gives

Madras, along with the transcripts of Nos. 372 and 419 of 1927-1928 485, 488, 490, 491, and 509 of 1928-1929. Unfortunately there are many gaps in the inscriptions, specially in 526 of 1928-9, and the handwriting in many places is indistinct. I am not sure of some of the above passages. I may note here that one of the birudas of Udayādityarasa given above-Paṇḍita Pāṇḍya-appears as the name of a Sāntara chieftain Paṇḍita Pāṇḍya, son of Rāya Pāṇḍya, in a record dated A.D. 1148. E. C. XI. Dg. 41, p. 51. Śaraṇāgata-vajra-pañjara is one of the birudas borne by the Hosagunda chieftain Kumāra. Bīrarasa in A.D. 1229. See infra, Ch. III, sec. IV.

1. 106 of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 290, p. 146; Swamikannu, Ind; Ephem., III. pp. 228, 230.

us the name of one of the most celebrated figures in Tuluva history. It is that of Parapali Nāyaka, who along with others (muntādavar), made a gift of gold (gadyāṇā 19) on Ādivāra, Pingala, Kumbha 31. The cyclic year Pingala corresponds to Saka 1019 (A.D. 1137), and the date evidently stands for Sunday the 21st February.

The memory of Parapali or Palipata Nāyaka, as he is called today, is still held in very high veneration by the people of Tuluva, especially in the Udipi and Kundāpūru tālukas, and, as they say, also over the Ghats. The above record which associates Parapali Nāyaka with a gift of gold, is of particular importance. The following story concerning the liberality of this most generous son of Tuluva is still current in the land:—

Parapali Nāyaka was a native of Banninje in Udipi where a gudi (shrine) of the god Hanumanta and a plot of land are still associated with him-the former as having been the place where he used to perform his worship of Hanumanta, and the latter his rice field from which he earned his living. His master was a learned Brahman, who was in search of a paraŝa (Philosopher's Stone). Being skilled in black art, the Brahman ordered Parapali Nāyaka to get ready a plantain tree to be planted in a certain place at a given time. Parapali Nāyaka being very inquisitive, brought two plantain

^{1. 488} of 1928-9; Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem., III. p. 278. Kumbha 31 is evidently an error for Kumbha 30. B.A.S.

trees, and giving one to his master, kept the other for himself. When the auspicious moment arrived, the Brahman planted the plantain tree, Parapali Nāyaka doing the same without his master's knowing it.

In due course startling results revealed themselves: the master's plantain tree proved barren, while Parapali Nāyaka's bore a gorgeous bunch of golden coloured plantains! But the simple-minded Parapali Nāvaka seeing the huge bunch of plantains, was terribly perturbed at the novel fruits, and went to his master and confessed his doings. The kind-hearted Brahman. far from getting angry with his servant, told him to do the following: -On a particular day Parapali Nāyaka was to take the bunch of plantains to the sea, and doing obeisance (to the ocean) was to throw the plantains into the waters. The Brahman said that the ocean would then send three waves-the first and second would throw metals and precious stones on to the shore, but Parapali Nāyaka was not to collect them. Whatever the third wave brought was to be taken to his home.

Parapali Nāyaka taithfully followed the instructions of his master. The first and the second breaker brought forth glittering metals and shining diamonds respectively. These he threw back into the sea. A third wave swept clean over the beach and left behind it one single pebble in the shape of an axe. Parapali after some moments of doubt as to whether or not he should take this piece of stone, at last carried it to his hut. That evening he threw it in a

niche in the wall, where he kept his scythe. Forgetting the day's strange happenings, he fell asleep.

On the morrow when he started for work in his field, he was stunned to see his scythe turned into gold! Running to his master, he narrated everything begging the Brahman's forgiveness. The Brahman instead of rebuking him told him the use to which the stone could be put, but warned him to use it sparingly. Parapali carried out his master's injunctions to the letter. He turned iron into gold but never made use of the wealth for himself. He continued to serve his old master and to live in his old dilapidated hut. But he bought land at enormous price and bestowed it upon the poor. This he did not only in Tuluva but also in the regions of the Ghats, Kerala, and even in distant Tirupati.

Honest Parapali drew upon himself the envy of the great land-owners and others. Once he went to Basarūru in order to buy land for cattle. It was his custom to buy land at different places and turn it into public grazing ground. At Basarūru, however, the people looked with suspicion on his wealth and refused to sell plots of land to him. At last Parapali prevailed upon them, and it was agreed that so much of land was to be given to him as would be covered by a stone trough. The condition being that he was to pay the price of the plot in as much gold as the trough would hold. Parapali paid the money but when constructing the trough, caused it so to be shaped that it bulged out in

the middle to an extent the wily citizens of Basarūru had not anticipated. All land below the trough became the property of Parapali Nāyaka.

His deeds consisted mostly in gifts of land for cattle. Everywhere, especially in the Udipi tāluka, large plots of waste land are now shown as "Palipaṭa Nāyaka's dharma". Most often these plots of land contain single slabs of granite placed perpendicularly on the ground. They bear no inscription. But some times nearabouts there is an image of the god Hanumanta. The following places contain many such stones:—Baṇṇinje, where he is said to have lived; Guṇḍibailu near the Māyā Guṇḍi temple, Ādī Uḍipi on the small hillock where stands the guḍi (or shrine) of the powerful devil Bobbariye, and Kukkehaḷḷi near Kīḷinje where an inscription which is said to have contained details concerning his deeds, has been recently destroyed.

Parapali Nāyaka's last days were spent in charity as well. It was his wish that the Philosopher's Stone should pass into the hands of an equally generous person, now that he was getting old and that his end was approaching. His Brahman master advised him to entertain the men of the locality with a grand feast. The Stone was immersed in one of the huge cauldrons used in Tuluva for preparing the dishes. It was agreed that the stone should become his property on whose plantain leaf it would be served. But serve as they would, the stone dropped only on the leaf of Parapali Nāyaka!

Since there was none who was worthy of getting the Stone, on the advice of his Brahman master, Parapali Nāyaka threw it back into ocean from where he had secured it.

To revert to the story of the Ālupa ruler in whose reign Parapaļi Nāyaka lived. A third stone inscription found at Beļuvāyi in the Kārkaļa tāluka is to be assigned also to the same Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra. It opens in the usual manner with svasti S'rī, and proceeds directly to narrate that in the victorious and increasing reign of Śrīmat Pāṇḍya

^{1.} Another story is also current in Tuluva concerning the manner in which he got the Fhilosopher's Stone. It is the following: Once many pilgrims assembled in the Anantesvara temple at Udipi with a view to proceed to Tirupati. At the repeated requests of Parapali Nāyaka, they agreed to take him along with them as a load. bearer. To while away their time they asked him, in the course of their journey, what he, who could not even perform a pūiā, would do if god Govinda appeared to him and blessed him. He replied that he would do good to the people. They laughed at his simplicity. On reaching Tirupati, Parapali found that every body neglected him because he was a poor man. Sorry beyond measure, he sat under a tree and prayed to God that if only He took pity on him, he would pray as others did and do good to the world. Just then a monkey came over head and dropped a pebble on Parapali. Regretting that even animals felt no pity for him, Parapali threw aside the pebble. The monkey repeated his pranks thrice, when for the third time the pebble touched the betel-leaf pestle which turned instantly into gold. Blessing the monkey, Parapali went to the bazar and sold his gold, and to the surprise of all, gave dinners to his fellow travellers and performed many pūjās in the temple. Returning to Tuluva, he began to give munificent gifts, and is said to have converted Tiribūdu (Loafer's Quarters) of Udipi into Siribūdu (i. e., Śrībūdu or Wealthy Quarters). He lived till the end of his life in the same old hut which he had occupied before going to Tirupati. B. A. S.

Cakravartin Pāṇḍya Deva, which was to endure as long as the moon and the stars may last, (S'rīmat Pāṇḍya Cakravarti Pāṇḍya-devara rājya-abhivṛddhi prvṛddhamā[nam] ācandrārkka-tārāvara [tārāmbaram] salutam ire), Mahāpra-dhāna Arasu Heggaḍe, Kunni Gauḍa's officers (? cāraru), Mujavuru of Devala Kanda, and Hāraḍe Deva, made a grant (the details of which are effaced) to Iśvara (?). The date is given with the following incomplete details—Mīnadalu Brahulva (? Bahuļa) Meṣa māsa Ādivāra.

Since we know that in A.D. 1138 Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Bhujabala Kavi Alupendra was ruling, we have to construe the above record hailing from Beluvāyi as one that refers only to the same ruler.

A fourth stone inscription may also be assigned to him. It was found in the Pañcalingeśvara temple at Bārakūru. The epigraph opens in the manner given above and continues to relate that in the victorious reign, augmenting with perpetual increase which was to endure so long as the moon and the sun and stars may last, of Bhujabaļa (la) Kavi Ālupendradeva, (vije[a]yarā ... m-uttara-uttara-abhivr ... pravarddham-ācandrārkka-ārāmbaram-salutam ire), an endowment (specified in detail) was made. The grant made in the presence of the god Mārkandeśvara at Bārakūru, evidently refers to lands in Sūrala (mod. Surāla) to Sūrala Toļaha for the naivedya-sāle (oblations hall?) constructed by (in honour of?) Śivānanda Yōgi. The epigraph is dated S'aka-

^{1. 61} of 1001; S. I. I., VII, No. 237, p. 120.

nrpa kālātīta-samvatsarada 1062 neya Siddhārthi samvatsarada Vais'ākha māsam which evidently refers to Saka 1062 current corresponding to A.D. 1139 April.¹

Another stone inscription found in the Mahālingeśvara temple at Basarūru, Kundāpūru tāluka, confirms the above titles of the ruler. This epigraph informs us that Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Bhujabala Vīra Kavi Ālupendradeva made a gift for providing offerings to the god Gaṇapati in the presence of the god Nakhareśvara at Basurepura (mod. Basarūru). The grant is dated in Śaka 1077, Bhāva, Dhanus Sankramaṇa which corresponds to A.D. 1154 December.²

Of these five records the first one, viz., that dated in A.D. 1113-4 calls the king merely as ruling the kingdom—S'rī Kāvyālpendra Dēvara rājyadalu. This suggests that he acknowledged a suzerain in that year. But in A.D. 1138 he is called Pāndya Cakravarti; while the biruda of Bhujabala and the phrase relating to the victorious and augmenting reign given above, and as mentioned in his record dated A.D. 1140, clearly indicate his prowess and the stability of his independent kingdom. The biruda of Vīra prefixed to his name în A.D. 1154 is a further testimony to his independent position.

^{1. 176} of 1901; S. I. I. VII., No. 381, p. 236; Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem. III, p. 280.

^{2. 416} of 1927-8; Swamikannu, ibid, p. 311. The god Nakhareśvara is rather an uncommon name. The god Nakhareśvara of Visņusamudra in Āsandi-nāḍ is mentioned in A.D. 1143, A.D. 1240, and in λ.D. 1253. E. C. VI. Kd. 99, 100 & 101, pp. 18-19. B. A. S.

A sixth stone record found in the Pancalingesvara temple at Kötekeri in Barakuru, conclusively proves that he was an independent king. This epigraph after beginning only with svasti proceeds directly to give the imperial titles of the ruler thus :—Samasta-bhuvanās'rava S'rī-prthvī-vallabha Mahārājādhirāja Parames'vara Paramabhattārakar-appa S'rīmat Pāndva Cakravarti Bhujabala Kavi Alupendra Devaru Bārahakanvāpurada aramaneva (lu) sukhas sankathā vinodadim rājyam-geyyuttam-ire. (The Refuge of all the worlds, the Favourite of the Earth [and] Fortune. Mahārājādhirāja, Parameśvara Paramabhattāraka. Śrīmat Pāndya Cakravartin Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva was ruling the kingdom of the world in peace and wisdom from his palace at Bārahakanyāpura). The date is given thus: Sa (S'a) ka-varşa 1077 neya Yuvasamvatsarada Karkkata-māsa prathama-Soma vāradandu. This works out correctly to A.D. 1155, June, Monday the 27th.

The other details of this interesting record will be given in a later connection. On the strength of this inscription as well as on that of the above, it may be asserted that from about A.D. 1138 till A.D. 1155 Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Bhujabala Vīra Kavi Ālupendradeva continued to rule as an independent king. His capital, we may note incidentally, was named Bārahakanyāpura, the original god (mūla-deva) of which was called Mārkaṇḍeśvara.

^{1. 171} of 1901; S. I. I. VII., No. 376, pp. 231-2; Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem., III., p. 312.

A seventh undated stone inscription relating to the same Ālupa ruler and found also in the same Pañcalinge svara temple at Kōṭekēṇi, will be cited later on while describing the foreign relations of the Ālupas.¹

On the back of a sculptured slab set up near the Gummata statue at Vēņuru is another stone epigraph which may be assigned to the same age. The inscription opens in the usual Alupa manner with svasti S rī. and then continues to relate that for a religious performance (sarpūjakke) of the Mahāmandaleśvara Sevyagellara, a stone was erected to commemorate for a thousand years the exhibition of horsemanship by him (? S'rī Sevyagellarasa sahasra var sakke vēļe vāliyum) by order of (besadim) Kājuva Mainduvālda of the Binni Verggade bali. The date given is Sa (Sa)ka-nrpa kālātīta 1040 neya Vilambi-samvatsarada Kārtt kada Amavāsva Budhavāradandu which corresponds to A.D. 1118, November the 15th Friday, the week day not corresponding. The phrase used for Mahāmandaleśvara Sevyagellara is the following:—Sarppūjakke cāluļķeyun eka-cchatradind āldu rājvam gevyuttam ire. What the words sarppūjakke cālulkevum stand for, cannot be made out. But from the latter part of the expression, it seems that he was enjoying some sort of independence. The epigaph concludes thus:-S'rī Sevyagellargiyum s'rī yumakke (?) mangala mahā śrī.

We have seen that Kavi Alupendra ruled also over that portion of Tuluva now represented by the Karkala

^{1.} Infra Ch. III. Sec. VIII.

^{2. 80} A of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 2-8, p. 131. Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem. III, p. 239. On Friday the 15th November there was Amāvāsyā.

tāluka, that his reign began in about A. D. 1113-4, but that it was only from A.D. 1138 that we have evidence of his independent rule. It is possible that Mahāmanḍales' vara Sevyagellara was either a chieftain of foreign stock who had established himself in about A.D. 1118 within the limits of Tuluva in the region which afterwards came to be associated with the Pāṇḍyas; or that he was a member of the Ālupa family who had set himself up as an independent chieftain.

The latter supposition seems to be more probable. The beginning and ending of Sevyagellara's Venūru inscription confirms this view. And the undated Beluvāyi stone inscription of Kavi Ālupendradeva may be recalled here. The absence of the birudas Vīra and Bhuja'ala, and of the phrase vijaya-rājyam attara—uttara—abhivrddhi pravrddha-mānam-ācandrārkka tārāmbaram-saluttam-ire-in the Beluvāyi record suggests that when it was engraved Kavi Ālupendra had to contend with an opponent whoever he was. The inclusion of the phrase eka-cchattradind-āldu rājyam geyyuttam-ire, on the other hand, in the inscription of the Mahāmardales'vara Sevyagellara, clearly points to an assumption of royal power by that chieftain

^{1.} There is a Śrī Siyagellarasa mentioned in an incomplete stone inscription found in a field in Rāunragrāma, Holavanahalli, Maddagiri tāluka, Mysore State. This epigraph records the death of Śrī Siyagellarasa's servant Raṇāketu's son Deveya, when Nolamba took the Tagalūr fort. E. C. XII, Mi. 38, p. 108. Rice has assigned it to a.d. 950. We do not know whether Siyagellarasa was the same as Seyyagellarasa, B. A. S.

We may not be wrong in assuming, therefore, that soon after A.D. 1118 or thereabouts, Kavi Ālupendra had to struggle probably against Sevyagellara whose biruda of Mahāmandalesvara shows his subordinate position, obviously in the Ālupa family. But it may be observed at the same time that he was the first chieftain to assume that biruda, at least so far as the available records are concerned. Whether this is granted or not, it seems certain that during the long reign of Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva (circa A.D. 1113-A.D. 1155), an independent foreign ruler could not have reigned within the boundaries of the Ālupa kingdom.

Pāndya Cakravartin Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva's successor was Jagadevarasa. Of this ruler an indirect reference is found in a viragal near the Siddheśvara temple in the Bairapura village in the Sagar hobli, Shimoga district, Mysore State. The viragal narrates the following:--"On Thursday the 5th lunar day of the bright half of Vaiśākha in the year Tārana, being the 19th year of the illustrious Vīra Sāntaradeva, Obtainer of the band of five musical instruments, Mahamandales'vara, possessed of excellent boons from Padmavati, delighter in musk, having all these and other titles",...-when the Kalacuriya king Tribhuyanamalla Bijjanadevarasa was at Kalyana, "The illustrious Hiriya Dannayaka ordered Aralaiyan and Padalaiyan of Banavase 12,000 and Singideva of Hombuccha to lead an attack on Birarasa of Hosagunda. Thereupon an army of 10,000 horsemen

and 50,000 foot-soldiers went to battle". Then the record contains the name of the Ālupa king Jagadevarasa and a description of the heroic deeds of Haleyamma, son of Aibisețți, telliga (oil-monger) of Nellivādi, and his death.

Dr. Krishna, who has edited and translated this vīragal in his Annual Report of the Mysore Archaeological Department for 1930, comments thus:—"This vīragal describes the exploits of a hero named Haleyamma of Nellivādi in a battle against the Āluva king Jagadevarasa. There was also a fight between Bīrarasa of Hosagunda and his over-lord Vīra Śāntaradeva". Dr. Krishna assigns this vīragal which contains no Śaka year but only the cyclic year Tāraṇa and the week day, to A.D. 1164 on the strength of the reference to the Kaļacuriya king Bijjaļa. With this correct date before us, we shall proceed to locate the Jagadevarasa mentioned above in the Ālupa genealogy.

Vīra Šāntara is undoubtedly a Šāntara ruler, as the name signifies. If the date given above is accepted. Vīra Šāntara was a contemporary of the Kalacuriya

^{1.} My. Archl. Rept. for 1930, pp. 223-6. Dr. Krishna translates the passage thus:—"The illustrious Hiriya Dannāyaka Aralaiyan and Padaliiya of Banavase 12,000 and Singideva of Hombuchcha ordered a military expedition against Birarasa of Hosagunda" (p. 225). This is incorrect, for the original runs thus: Srīmetu Hiriy dannāyakaru Ar l. iy. nu Benavese-pennir-cchāsid ra-Padeleiyy. nu Honbuchadi Singidevnum Hosegund da Bir. rasana mēle nod duhzg-enalu" (p. 223, 11.4-6). Here whereas Hiriya Dannāyaka is given the plural, all the others under his commad are spoken of in the singular, thus justifying the translation we have given above. B.A.S.

king Bijjala Deva. And since the viragal is dated in the nineteenth year of Vīra Sāntara's reign, he may be placed, as Dr. Krishna rightly says, between A.D. 1146 and A.D. 1164 or thereabouts, Bijjala Deva having reigned from A.D. 1156 till A.D. 1167.

We have now to fix the dates of the Ālupa king Jagadevarasa and his position in contemporary history. It may be argued that he was the same as the Vīra Jagadeva mentioned in the Pañcalingesvara stone inscription found at Kōṭekeri in Bārakūru. But the following considerations will prove that they were not identical:—

(1) The Pañcalingesvara temple record calls Jagadeva merely Vīra Jagadeva, while the Siddhesvara temple record styles him Ālupa Jagadeva.

^{1.} The identification of the Vira Santara Deva mentioned in this record is a difficult matter. It is clear from the Siddheśvara temple vīragal that his nineteenth regnal year was A.D. 1164, i.e., his first regnal year was A.D. 1146. But from A.D. 1146 till A.D. 1164 we have six Santara names-Vikrama Santara (A.D. 1147), Jagadevarasa (A.D. 1149), Bommarasa (A.D. 1152), Rāya Tailapa Deva (A.D. 1159), Jagadevarasa (A.D. 1160), and Singi Deva (A.D. 1165-A.D. 1166). (E. C. VII, Sk. 103, pp. 74-75; ibid, VIII. Sa. 28, Sa. 93, Sa. 112. Sa. 113, Sa. 114, Sa. 159, and Nr. 47, pp. 108, 115, 122-123, 151-2.) But a Vīra Sāntara Deva figures in the records of A.D. 1170, A.D. 1173, A.D. 1191, and A.D. 1194. (E. C. VIII, Sa. 116, p. 116; ibid, VII. Sh. 116, p. 37; Sk. 38, p. 49; My. Arch. Rept. for 1931, pp. 204-208; and ibid for 1930, pp 220-222). What the Kalacuriya monarch Bijjaladeva had to do with Banavase is apparent from two records dated A.p. 1162 respectively. These mention king Pāṇdya in the Nolambavādi and Barmarasa Dannayaka over the Banavase 12,000, under the same monarch, (E. C. XI, Dg. 42, Dg. 84, pp. 54, 67). A further elucidation of this question is outside the present limits of our treatise. B. A. S.

- (2) Vīra Jagadeva of the Pañcalingeśvara temple inscription has been assigned to A.D. 1104-A.D. 1149-50, i. e., he has been given a period of nearly forty-five years. The Ālupa Jagadeva being a contemporary of Vīra Sāntara and of king Bijjaļa Deva must be placed between A.D. 1146 and A.D. 1176. If he were the same as the Vīra Jagadeva of the Pañcalingeśvara temple inscription, he would have to be given an unusually long reign from A.D. 1104 till A.D. 1176. This is inadmissible.
- (3) We know from Ālupa records that Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra ruled from A.D. 1113 till A.D. 1155. It cannot be that another Ālupa king reigned at the same time.

We have, therefore, to place Alupa Jagadeva either before Bhujabala Kavi Alupendra or after him. The former is inadmissible, because Alupa Jagadeva was a contemporary of Vīra Śāntara and of king Bijjala Hence he must be placed between A.D. 1146 and A.D. 1176. We know that there is a gap in the Alupa genealogy after Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra and before Kulasekhara Ālupendra whose first year is A.D. 1170. Alupa Jagadeva fills in this gap between Bhujabala Kavi Alupendra and Kulasekhara Alupendra. If this is allowed, then, Alupa Jagadeva ruled from A.D. 1155 till A.D. 1170. Only in this way can we reconcile the date A.D. 1164 given to the viragal by Dr. Krishna with the chronological difficulties of the Alupa kings in the period after Bhujabala Kavi Alupendra and before Kulasekhara Alupendra.

One question, however, remains still to be discussed—the status of Ālupa Jagadeva in the Siddheśvara record. From Dr. Krishna's note given above, it is not clear whether we have to take Ālupa Jagadeva as an ally or enemy of Vīra Śāntara Deva. What seems certain is that Bīrarasa of Hosagunda had taken the offensive; that Hiriya Daṇṇāyaka ordered Aralaiyan, Padalaiyan, and Singideva to concert measures against him; and that Haleyamma of Nellivāḍi died the death of a hero. Dr. Krishna's note seems to suggest that there were two fights—one in which Haleyamma lost his life against Ālupa Jagadevarasa, and the other in which Bīrarasa of Hosagunda fought against his overlord Vīra Śāntara.

But this may be questioned. The viragal mentions only one encounter, and it does not suggest that Vira Sāntara was the overlord of Bīrarasa of Hosagunda. That the viragal describes only one encounter can be found out by noticing how and when Ālupa Jagadeva comes in the story. The original clearly says that on the attack made by Bīrarasa of Hosagunda, 10,000 cavalry and 50,000 infantry were called to action. These numbers are significant: the offensive conducted by Bīrarasa was evidently of a very serious nature necessitating the united action of three provincial officials.

It was to meet such a grave contingency that Alupa Jagadeva's aid was called into requisition. We prove that he was asked to join the battle against Bīrarasa from the context itself which relates that when 10,000

cavalry and 50,000 infantry had gone to war (hat[t]u sāsira kudure aivattu sāsira-āla-daļa dhurake hodalli), the Ālva king Jagadevarasa from below the Ghats (being a party) in the struggle, proceeded, ravaging the districts (Ghaṭada keļagaṇa Ālvarasu Jagadevarasan-olagāgi naḍedunāḍa-kiḍisuttav iralu). Ālupa Jagadeva's position can best be understood by noting the meaning of the phrase olagāgi naḍedu which may be interpreted thus—"came in the struggle (and) proceeded." The inscription does not warrant the supposition that Ālupa Jagadevarasa was accompanied by others. It merely records his participation in the battle and the havoc he caused in the country (of the enemy).

The exploits of Haleymma were evidently directed against Bīrarasa and not against Ālupa Jagadeva, although it must be confessed that the reference to the army which burnt Gauja and which was marching to Andāsara is not ascertainable.

We have now to explain why Ālupa Jagadeva could not have fought against Vīra Śāntara, and why Bīrarasa could not have been a feudatory of the latter. If our identification of Ālupa Jagadevarasa mentioned in the Siddheśvara temple record with the successor of Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra is correct, then, Ālupa Jagadeva could not have led an army against the Śāntara king. It was only in the preceding reign of Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra that the Ālupa-Śāntara alliance had been cemented by a marriage between that Ālupa king and a Śāntara princess. Until the contrary is proved,

we have to assume that this good feeling continued in the times of Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra's successor; and that Ālupa Jagadevarasa marched against Bīrarasa of Hosagunda on behalf of his ally Vīra Śāntara Deva.

As against this the following may be argued:—That the inscription mentions the Alupa king as Alvarasu lagadevarasanu, thereby calling him in the singular. The Hosagunda ruler is likewise called in the singular-Hosagundada Bīrarasana mēle. This proves that both Bīrarasa and Jagadevarasa were enemies to the Śāntara king. But this objection is of no avail. Vīra Sāntara himself is styled merely S'rimatu Vira S'āntara Deva, and no plural termination is appended to his name. Likewise the three provincial officials who helped Hiriya Dannavaka, viz., Aralaiyan, Padalaiyan of Banavase 12,000, and Singideva of Humbuccha, are called in the singular. The reason seems to be that the scribe mentions with respect only the provincial viceroy. the illustrious (S'rīmatu) Hiriya Danaavaka, and the suzerain Bijjala Deva.

The second objection that may be raised against our surmise is that the Hosagunda rulers, as shown elsewhere in this treatise, were called 'Shaker of the Tulu Rāya', 'Promoter of the Tulu kingdom.' 'Establisher of the Tulu Rāya'; that these three birudas were borne by the later Hosagunda chiefs evidently in commemoration of the help which Bīrarasa of Hosagunda had given to Ālupa Jagadeva; and that, therefore, we have to suppose that Ālupa

Jagadeva really helped Bīrarasa against Vīra Sāntara. These considerations are invalidated by the fact that the birudas in question were borne by Hosagunda chiefs in the middle of the thirteenth century A.D. They are not of any use for our purpose.

Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Vīra Kulasekhara Ālupendra I succeeded Ālupa Jagadevarasa Of this ruler five stone inscriptions have been found in Tuluva:—the stone inscription in the Mahālingeśvara temple at Basarūru in the Kundāpūru tāluka; an unfinished stone record found in the Mahālingeśvara temple at Kōṭa in the Uḍipi tāluka; two defaced stone inscriptions found in the Gauri temple in that quarter of Mūḍubidre called Prāntya; and a stone slab set up in front of the verandah of the Nemīśvara basti in Varaṅga, also in the Kārkaļa tāluka.

The Mahālingeśvara temple record found at Basarūru is a damaged epigraph but is dated only in the cyclic year Manmatha, Makaramāsa, 18, Monday. The cyclic year corresponds to Śaka 1098 (A.D. 1176) and the date intended is probably January the 12th Monday. It merely records a gift to the temple of Nakhareśvara of the paṭṭaṇa Basarūru. The king is given the following birudas—Samasta-bhuvana-vikhyāta, Soma-kula-tilaka, Mahārājādhirāja, Rājaparames'vara, Paramabhaṭṭārakar-appa S'rīmat Pāndya Cakravarti Kulas'ekharadeva.

^{1. 119} of 1927-8; Ep. Rep. for 1927-8, p. 44.

The unfinished and undated stone epigraph also of the same ruler but found in the Mahālingesvara temple at Kōṭa only mentions (a gift to) the god of Kōṭa.

The two defaced stone inscriptions of this ruler found in the Gauri temple at Prāntya in Mūdubidre may now be examined. The earlier of these two records is dated Sa(S'a)ka-nrpa $k\bar{a}$ lātīta samvatsara 1:2 (7) neya Krodhana samvatsarada Meṣa māsa 17 neya Ādivāradandu. This corresponds correctly to A.D. 1205 April the 10th Sunday.

Opening in the usual Ālupa manner, it proceeds to give the birudas of the ruler thus:— $P\bar{a}_{\bar{n}}dya$ Cakravarti Ko (Ku) lase (s'e) khara Āļvendra-devar, and then relates that under the shadow of his sole umbrella (eka-cchatra-dim rājyam geyyuttam ire), (on the given date), a deed of charity (dharma-kārya) was made by some prominent citizens including a Mahāpradhāna, whose name is effaced, and others for the goddess Durgā. On this occasion a grant of land from their brahmadeya estates to the same goddess was made by Jjhunkunjanā Deva, his son Narena Inā (Jjhana?) Deva, and his son-in-law Vāsu Deva, embodying the same in a stone inscription (silā likhida [likhita] sāsanam).3

In the other stone inscription also found in the same Gauri temple, we have the following birudas given to the ruler:—S'rīmat Pāṇdya Cakravarti Rāya Bhujabala

^{1. 507} of 1928-9.

^{2.} Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem., IV, p. 12.

^{3. 52} of 1901; S. I. I., VII, No. 223, p. 112.

(la) Vīra Kola (Kula) Se (S'e) khara Alvendra deva. His victorious and increasing reign is given thus:—vije (ja) ya-rājyam-uttara-uttara-abhivrddhi-pravrddha-mānam-ācandrārkka-tārāmbaradim sukha-sankathā-vinodadim saluttav (m) -ire. The inscription is dated in Vi (su) s'o manālu 158 (0) 1 (6) 2 (?) Kaliyuga vari (ru) sa (sa) 4315 sand-andu 6 ru māle nadu (vu) tird-andu Yuva samvatsarada Kes'ava māsa prathama dina...Vad (d) a vāram. This corresponds to S'aka 1137 Yuva (A.D. 1215 April the 16th Thursday). The details of the grant to the goddess Durga and to the Jaina Tirthankara Pārsvanātha that follow are defaced. Nevertheless they will be discussed later on while dealing with the history of the religion under the Alupas. The Vira Pandva Deva mentioned in this record could only have been Pandya Cakravartin Bhujabala Vīra Pāndva Ālupendra referred to above in this treatise. The record under review breaks off at the end 1

The patronage which Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Kavi Kulaśekhara Ālupendra extended to the Jaina religion, as is proved by the above record, is further corroborated by a long but undated and damaged inscription on a slab set up in front of the verandah of the Nemīśvara basti in Varanga in the Kārkaļa tāluka. It is this record

^{1. 51} of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 222, pp. 111-2; Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem., IV, p. 32. Kali 4315 expired = Kali 4316 current which agrees with Saka 1137. I am unable to interpret the figures preceding Kaliyuga in this record. Mr. Rama Rao informs me that Keśavamāsa is equivalent probably to Mādhava which is the same as Vaiśākha. In the present reckoning it has been taken as Vaiśākha, B. A. S.

that gives us the name of Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra's predecessor as Pāṇḍya Paṭṭoḍeya whom we identified with Udayādityarasa Pāṇḍya Paṭṭigadeva Ālupa above. The inscription further supplies us with the names of the queen Jākala Mahādevi's younger brother Vīra Bhūpāla (ā Ma [hādevi] ya anuja), who is praised thus-dāva (na)-S'aurya-sāra Vīra Bhūpāla. It was he who made public the grant given by Jākala Mahādevī. The inscription gives further the names of Paṇḍta Pāṇḍya, and of the three Jaina priests Maladhāri Deva, Mādhavacandra, and Prabhācandra.

The reign of Bhujabala Kulasekhara Ālupendradeva I was the longest in Ālupa history. According to the direct evidence of the epigraphs given above, his rule lasted from A.D. 1176 till A.D. 1215. But on the strength of an inscription concerning the well-known Konkan ruler Jayakeśi I, to be mentioned in a later context, we believe that the first year of Bhujabala Kulasekhara Ālupendradeva was A.D. 1170. There cannot be any doubt that Bhujabala Kulasekhara Ālupendradeva I ruled for forty-five years from A.D. 1170 till A.D. 1215. His age is memorable not only from the point of view of its length but also from the standpoint of the stability of the Ālupa kingdom. We have

^{1. 526} of 1928-29; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9 pp. 79-80. See also Ep. Rept. for 1927-8; pp. 59-60 where Mr. Venkoba Rao rightly identifies Kulasekhara Deva of 419 of 1927-8 with Kulasekhara Deva of 52 of 1901. In 526 of 1928-9 the following birudas precede the name Pandita Pāndya—jagat-prasiddha vidyā-vilāsini suvarna-kundala-ābharana... Pi(a)ndita Pāndyan-enisi Pāndya-nanda, etc.

seen the assertion made in his records that his was a victorious and augmenting reign. The praise bestowed on him in the epigraphs seems justified: for to preserve the integrity of the Alupa kingdom which his predecessor Bhujabala Kavi Alupendra had firmly established, inspite of the many aggressive designs of foreign Karnātaka rulers, was indeed a remarkable achievement. We shall deal with the troubles in the reign of this ruler, while delineating the foreign relations of the Alupas.

Bhujabala Kavi Alupendradeva I's successor was Nürmmadi Cakravartin. This is inferred from the Nemīśvara basti inscription which narrates the following :-alle baliyam Patti-Odeya Kulasekhara-deva rajyānantaram Rāya-gajānkusan immadida rājan Nūrmmadi-Cakraoarti dana-cintamuni catus-samudra-mudrita-kirti-kanta-manovallabhan-enisi 1... The absence of the intervening names of Bhujabala Kavi Alupendradeva and of Jagadevarasa in this context is for the present inexplicable. However, we may note that Nūrmmadi Cakravartin had the biruda of Rāya-gajānkuśa, and that he seems to have been celebrated for his gifts as the birudas "A wishing gem(Philospher's Stone) of charity", and "the Favourite of the lady Fame who had spread to the limits of the four seas", clearly imply. Since it is stated in the epigraph that he came after Kulasekhara Alupendradeva, he may be assigned to the period intervening between Kulaśekhara Alupendradeva I and Vibudha-

^{1. 526} of 1928-9.

vasu. He may, therefore, have reigned from A.D. 1216 till A.D. 1256.

Nūrmmadi Cakravartin's successor was Vibudhavasu. The sources of information for the reign of this king are the Grāmapaddhati and a stone inscription found in the Mahālingeśvara temple at Kōta in the Udipi tāluka. The Puttige matha version of the Grāmapaddhati merely calls him Vasu but describes him at some length, thus: Once there was a king named Vasu. was the substance of virtue, and was known as Indra of the Earth. While he ruled, the earth was filled with plenty, and falsehood and thieving were unknown. He was highly learned and well versed in the science of politics. (purā tu pārthivah kascit āsīt sāra-gunānvitah; nāmnā Vasuh iti khyātah yam viduh bhūpurandaram. tasmin s'āsati bhūpāle ksonīm sarvasamrddhinīm; anrtatvam taskaratvam nāsti-iti āhuh manīsinah...mahā-prājnah nīti-śāstraviśāradah). We shall have to refer to this again while describing the judicial procedure common in ancient Tuluva.2

That king Vasu of the Grämapaddhati belonged to the Ālupa family there cannot be any doubt. The Mahālingeśvara temple stone inscription of this ruler, dated Saka 1166, Ānanda (A.D. 1244-5), maintains that he belonged to the Pāṇḍya line, and that he gave a

^{1.} The Government Epigraphist (Mr. K. V. Subrahmanya Aiyer) makes Nürmmadi Cakravartin, Vīra Bhūpāla, and Kundaṇa brothers. Ep Rep. of the S. Circle for 1928-9, pp. 79-80. But in the transcript sent to me the name Kundaṇa cannot be traced. The meaning of alle baliyam and immadida rājan is not clear. B. A. S.

^{2.} The Puttige version. Infra Ch. V.

village valued at 1,000 pagodas as a gift, evidently to the same temple. We have seen that the Ālupa rulers of this age assumed the cognomen Pāṇḍya. This explains why Vibudhavasu is called a ruler who belonged to the Pāṇḍya line. The Pāṇḍya family mentioned here does not refer to the Pāṇḍyas of Madura at all but to another family who had nothing to do with them. For our purpose we may note that Vibudhavasu's reign fits in very well the gap between Nūrmmadi Cakravartin and Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva Ālupendradeva I.²

His successor was Vīra Pāndvadeva Ālupendradeva I. Eight stone inscriptions of this ruler and a ninth concerning his crowned queen have been found in Tuluva. These are the stone inscriptions in the Mahālingesvara temple at Kōta in the Udipi tāluka; another stone epigraph in the Mahalingesvara temple Brahmāvūru also in the same tāluka; a third one in the Mahisāsuramardinī temple at Nīlāvara also in the same tāluka: a fourth one in the Koteśvara temple at Koteśvara in the Kundāpūru tāluka; a fifth inscription found in the Kundeśvara temple at Kundapūru; and a sixth discovered in the Visnu temple at Puttige in the Udipi tāluka. Two more inscriptions found in the Mahālingeśvara temple at Padūru in the Udipi tāluka, may also be assigned to the reign of the same ruler. The ninth stone inscription which mentions his queen

^{1.} Rangachari, Top. List. I No. 217, p. 869.

^{2.} It may be that Vasu was given the title of Vibudha (the Wise) because of his learning. B. A. S.

was found in the Mahişāsuramardinī temple in Nilāvara in the same tāluka.

The stone inscription found in the Mahālingésvara temple at Kōta supplies the earliest date for Vīra Pāndva Deva Ālupendradeva. It is dated Saka 1177 when Jupiter was in Mithuna, Ananda, Bhadrapada, Bahula, 10 Sunday, Kanyā 10 which agrees, but for the week day which happens to be Monday, with 7 September A.D. 1254. The record embodies an order issued by the king in the presence of Aliva Bankideva, Maiduna (brother-in-law) Oddamadeva, Ballaveggade, and "the Thousand of Kotta", i.e., Kota (Kottada sāsirvarum), while he was ruling from his capital Bārahakanyāpura. It cannot be made out whether the Aliya Bankideva was the king's nephew or his son-inlaw, and whether he is to be identified with a ruler of the same name whose earliest record, as will be narrated presently, is dated A.D. 1302. The Alupa ruler is styled thus—Vira Pandya Alupendradevara vijavarājyam-uttara-uttara pravrddhamānam ācandrārka tārāmbaram saluttam-irddu.1

The next stone inscription found in the Mahāling-eśvara temple at Brahmāvūru is dated Śaka 1177 when Jupiter was in Mithuna, Ānanda, Āśvayija (Āśvija), Śu. 15, Monday, Kanyā 30 Sankramana Monday, which agrees with Monday the 28th September A.D. 1254. This record opens with a salutation to Ganapati (S'rī Ganādhipātaye namah). The king, who is called Pāndya

^{1. 509} of 1928-9; Ep. Rep. for 1928-9, p. 57.

Cakravartin Arirāya-Gajakesarin Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva, is said to have been seated in the durbar hall in his palace at Bārahakanyāpura with Aliya Bankideva, Maiduna Oḍḍamadeva. Ballaveggaḍe, ministers (pradhānaru) and purohits, when he made a gift to the Two Hundred (Brahmavūradali nūrirvarige) of Brahmāvūru.

While seated in the same palace at Bārahakanyāpura along with the same nephew and Oḍḍamadeva Narasinga Heggaḍe, the ministers, and the purohits, Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva Ālupendradeva made a gift (of gold) to the Three Hundred of Niruvāra (Niruvārada munnāroarige), as is related in the damaged stone record found in the Mahiṣāsuramardinī temple at Nīlāvara in the Uḍipi tāluka. The date of this inscription is given thus:—Śaka 1181, Pingaļa, Phālguṇa, Bahuļa 5, Sunday, when Jupiter was in Kanyā, Mīna 1, Saturday which corresponds to February the 24th Sunday and February the 23rd Saturday A.D. 1258. The king is expressly stated in this record to have been seated on the throne in the older (senior) palace at Bārahakanyāpura (S'rīmatu rājadhāni Bārahakanyāpurada hiriya-aramaneyalu).

The Koţeśvara temple stone epigraph found at Koţeśvara in the Kundāpūru tāluka records a similar gift of gold. Here the Three Hundred of Kudikūra are said to have assembled at Bārahakanyāpura and the king's brother-in-law Oddamadeva and Narasinga

^{1. 485} of 1928-9; Ep. Rept. for 1927-8, p. 57.

^{2. 490} of 1928-9; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, p. 58. This record enables us to assert that Niruvāra was the earlier name of Nīlāvara.

Heggade are again mentioned. The inscription is dated Saka 1183, Durmati, Mārgaśīrṣa, Su. 6, Tuesday Dhanus, 3, which corresponds to Tuesday the 29th November A.D. 1261. The ruler is given the birudas Pārdya Cakravarti Arirāya Gajakesari, and is again said to be ruling from his sthira simhāsana (firm throne) at Bārahakanyāpura.¹

The Kundeśvara temple inscription styles the king Pāṇḍya devarasa Ālupendrarasa, and describes him as ruling from the same capital with his crowned queen (paṭṭada mahiṣī), his maiauna Oḍḍamadeva, Narasinga Heggaḍe, the senabova, the adhikāri, the purohita, and others; and to have fixed 140 and 180 samudāya gadyāṇas as the annual imposts leviable from the villages of Kundāpūru and Kudikūra respectively. The date of this inscription is Saka 1184, Dundhubi, Sravaṇa, Bahuļa 13, Sunday Simha 16. It agrees with Sunday the 13th August A.D. 1262.² The name of the crowned queen, as ascertained from another record to be mentioned later on, was Balla Mahādevī.

In the Visnumūrti temple at Puttige in the Udipi tāluka is a damaged stone inscription also of the same ruler. It is dated only in the cyclic year Prabhava, Simha, but is assignable to Saka 1190 (July-August A.D. 1267). The epigraph records a royal order made in the presence of the pradhānas (ministers) and other officers,

^{1. 370} of 1927; Ep. Rep. for 1926-7, pp. 62, 108.9.

^{2. 364} of 1927; Ep. Rep. for 1926-7, pp. 62, 108 9.

and issued from Bāra(ha)kanyāpura. The biruda of Vīra is given to the king in this inscription.

It cannot be determined whether Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Gajakesari Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva Ālupendradeva ruled only from A.D. 1254 till A.D. 1267. From the above record it is clear that the king's firm throne (sthira simhāsana) was always at Bārakūru which, it must be noted, is consistently styled Bārahakanyāpura. His last date cannot be determined but it is not improbable that he ruled till A.D. 1277-8 or thereabouts.

Two stone inscriptions of the same ruler have been found in the Mahālingeśvara temple at Padūru in the Uḍipi tāluka. Unfortunately both are damaged but both clearly give the name of the king as Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva Ālupendradeva. One of these is undated, and in the other, which seems to record a gift of land, the date is lost.² The main reason why these two records are assigned to the reign of this ruler is that they were found in one of the Saivite centres of the Uḍipi tāluka. It is true that one of the inscriptions of Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva Ālupendradeva II was also found in the Uḍipi tāluka. But, on the whole, the inscriptions of Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva Ālupendradeva III and of Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva Ālupendradeva III were found in the Mangalore and Kārkaļa tālukas.

^{1. 500} of 1928-9; Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem., IV, p. 137.

^{2. 367} and 368 of 1930-1931.

A. K. 9

The year A.D. 1277 witnessed the regime of his crowned queen Balla Mahādevī. A stone inscription found in the Mahiśāsuramardhini temple at Nīlāvara in the Udipi tāluka, styles her as the pattada pirivarasi (the senior crowned queen). It describes her as ruling the country (śrimatu pattada piriyarasi Balla-mahadeviyaru vijaya-rājyam-uttara-uttara-abhivrddhi pravardhamāna ācandrārkka tārāmbaram-saluttam-irdda). The epigraph states that a specified endowment in money (100 honnu) was made to the goddess Bhagavati of the temple of Niruvāra in the presence of all the pradhānas, deśa-purusas, odevas, adhikāris, and the important representatives of the village of Niruvāra (Niruvārada grāmadavaru). The inscription is dated Saka 120 (1), Isvara, Kanyā 15. Sunday. The cyclic year Isvara corresponds, however, to Saka 1199 (expired), and the other details evidently stand for A.D. 1277, September the 12th Sunday.1

The succession devolved on her son Nāgadevarasa. Two damaged inscriptions of this ruler have been found in the Mahālingeśvara temple at Basarūru in the Kundāpūru tāluka. The earlier of the two is a damaged record dated Saka 1213 Khara, Māgha Bahuļa 10, Thursday, Kumbha 20 which agrees but for the last detail which ought to be Kumbha 21, with A.D. 1292 February the 14th Thursday. Nāgadevarasa is called in this record the son of Balla Mahādevī, and is said to be ruling from the capital Bārahakanyāpura. It

^{1. 491} of 1928-9; Ep. Rept. for 1928-29, pp. 58, 80.

registers a gift of a flower garden to the god Nakhareśvara of Basarūru.¹

The other damaged inscription, also found in the same temple, is dated Saka 1220 Kumbha 20 which corresponds to (Saka 1220, the cyclic year being Vilamba) A.D. 1299, February the 13th Friday. It commemorates a gift also to the same god in the same temple.²

Of the next ruler Bankideva Alupendradeva II, four stone epigraphs have been found. The first of these was discovered in the Gollara Gaṇapati temple at Mangalore; the second at Kariyaṇgala near Polali Ammuṇije in the same tāluka; the third in the Mañjunātha temple at Kadri near Mangalore; and the fourth in a field in the village of Sujeru, Mangalore tāluka. The Gollara Gaṇapati stone inscription gives him the following birudas:—Pāṇḍya Cakravartin, Rāya-Gajānkuśa, and calls him Bankideva Ālupendradeva. His independent status is proved by the following phrases used in the same inscription:—vijaya-rājyam-uttara-uttara-abhivrddhipravarddhamāna-ācandrārkka-tārāmbaram (saluttam-ire) duṣtha-nigraha-ṣiṣṭha-pratipālanar-āgi sukha sankathā-vinodadiṃ rājyam geyyuttam irdda.

The date given in the above inscription is the following:—S'aka-abda 1225 neya S'ubha kṛta samvatsarada Meṣa māsa 7 neya \overline{A} (di) which corresponds to Sunday

^{1. 415} of 1927-8, Ep. Rept. for 1927-8, p. 49.

^{2. 420} of 1927-8; Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem. IV p. 198.

April the 1st A.D. 1302.1 The inscription then continues to narrate that in that part of the palace of the capital Mangalāpura called Mogasāle, where the king was holding the durbar on the occasion of the anniversarv of the death of the great queen Mocala Mahādevī (śrimatu rājadhāni Mangalāpurada aramaneya Mogasāleyalõlagam-kott iralu munna tammadiyakke Mocala mahādēviyara svargastar-āda avara pinda-pradānadalu), certain grants of land (specified) were made to Kādu Vāmana for the gods Brahmā, Visnu and Maheśvara. This epigraph, we may incidentally observe, is called a silā-sanketamam, evidently because it was an agreement arrived at by the people and the king. In fact, the last sentence invokes a blessing on the ruler who was present on the occasion:—endu barada śilā-sanketamam kēlda śrīmat Ar (a) sarge mangala-mahāśrī.2

The identity of the great queen Mocala Mahādevi is uncertain. But the use of the epithet Mahādevī and the absence of the term paṭṭada piriyarasi or paṭṭada mahiṣī suggest that she may have been the mother of Bankideva Ālupendra. If we take the death anniversary of the queen mentioned in the record to be the first of its kind, she may have died in A.D. 1301.

^{1.} and (2) 17 of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 177, p. 75. On the same page of S. I. I., a is interpreted as Āśāḍha, and 8 is substituted for 7. Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem., IV. p. 206. Kittel refers to a stone inscription dated Śālivāhana Śaka 1225 found in front of a temple that was then called Nīradevālaya and at present dedicated to Hanumanta in which the name Mangalāpura is mentioned. Kannaḍa-Eng. Diety., p. 1180. Evidently the inscription referred to is the one under discussion. B. A. S.

The second stone inscription belonging to this ruler was found at Kariyangala, near Polali Ammunije in the same tāluka. It is dated only in the cyclic year Krodhana (Krodhin), Simha 15 which corresponds to Saka 1226 (A.D. 1304 August, Wednesday the 12th). The inscription records a gift of land to the temple of Holaladevā (? devī) by a Brahman in the reign of Bankidevarasa.

A third inscription of the same king is the defaced stone record found in the Mañjunātha temple at Kadri near Mangalore. This undated epigraph gives the birudas Pāndya Cakravartin (Rā) ya-Gajānkuśa to the king Bankideva Ālupendra, and informs us that in the course of his increasing and victorious reign, while he was protecting the virtuous and punishing the wicked (vijaya rājyam uttara-uttara abhivrddhi pravarddhamāna [mā candrākka tā] rāmbaram [saluttam-ire] duṣṭha-nigraha-śiṣṭha pratipālana), and then breaks off. The similarity of the birudas and the phrases describing his independent rule mentioned in the above inscription with those given in the Gollara Gaṇapati temple inscription, suggests beyond any doubt that both the records are to be referred to the same ruler.

The Sujeru stone inscription is dated Saka 1228, Viśvāvasu, Simha 18, Sunday which corresponds correctly to A.D. 1305, August, Sunday the 15th. This is a unique record which shows how carefully the Ālupa

^{1. 377} of 1927-8; Swamikannu, Ind. Epem., IV, p. 211.

^{2. 26} of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 188, p. 84.

kings looked after the material welfare of their subjects. Its importance will be discussed in a subsequent section on the features of Alupa administration.¹

7. LATER ALUPAS AND THE BEGINNING OF THE DECLINE

Sovideva Ālupendradeva succeeded Bankideva Ālupendradeva. It cannot be determined how long the latter's rule lasted. But from the fact that the earliest inscription of Soyideva Alupendradeva is dated A.D. 1315, it is permissible to surmise that Bankideva Ālupendradeva's reign lasted till A.D. 1314-5. stone epigraphs of the reign of Sovideva Five Alupendradeva have been found, while a sixth record, mentioning one who was obviously a member of the royal family, falls within his reign. The five stone records are the following:—a stone inscription found in the Somanātheśvara temple at Manigārakēri in Bārakūru: a stone epigraph discovered in a place called Dammaragudde in Padebettu, Udipi tāluka; a stone record found under a peepul tree in Kapu also in the Udipi tāluka; another one found in the Mahālingeśvara temple at Udipi; and a damaged one discovered in the Anantapadmanābhasvāmi temple at Kudupu in the Mangalore tāluka. The sixth stone inscription falling within the reign of Soyideva Alupendradeva is also much damaged. It was discovered in the Nemiśvara basti at Varanga in the Kārkaļa tāluka.

^{1. 338} of 1930-1931; Swamikannu, Ind. Eph. IV p. 213.

The Somanathesvara temple stone inscription found in the Manigarakeri begins in the usual Alupa manner with svasti śrīmat, and gives the following birudas to Sovideva Alupendradeva: -Pandya Cakravartin Ariraya Basava S'ankara Deva. Of these the second is a new hiruda altogether. The phrase vije (ja) ya-rājya-udayam-uttaraabhivrddhimānam-ācandrārkka-tārāmbaram saluttam irdda suggests that he was enjoying an independent kingdom. But, as we shall point out in a later connection, the Alupa power was now beginning gradually to decline. The date of the above record, however, is given as S'aka-varusa 1238 Rāksasa samvatsarada Mārgas (ś) ira Su (S'u) dd (h) a 13 (Vr) ścika-māsa 13 Somavāra, The cyclic vear for Saka 1238 was Anala: and Vrścika 13 Monday would mean A.D. 1316 November the 9th Tuesday. We have, therefore, to assume that the date intended was probably Saka 1237 expired in which case it works out correctly to A.D. 1315 November, Monday the 10th. The ruler is represented as being in the palace in Bārahakanvāpura, and not Bārakāntupura, as has been wrongly read by the Madras Government Epigraphist. The king is described to be seated on the golden throne (suvarna-simhāsana-ārūdhar-āgi, and not unnata-sim hasana-ārūdharāgi, as has been supposed by the same writer), and holding his durbar (oddolagam kott-irda-prastava-dolu). The inscription which is unfortunately effaced in many places, records a grant for the offerings of the god Somanātha of Maņigārakēri. It was made by Bankidevarasa, the nephew of the ruler (... vāļvara

baliya [aliya] Bankidevarasaru) to Banki Senabova's (man?) Annadāta Heggade. The importance of this epigraph will be made clear while describing the administration under the Ālupas.¹

The second is a damaged stone inscription found in a place called Dammaragudde, about a mile to the north of the Subrahmanya temple in the Padebettu village, Udipi tāluka. It is dated Śaka 12 (46 Raktākṣi) which corresponds to A. D. 1324-5. The ruler is called Vīra (So) yideva Ālupendradeva. This record seems to register a gift of money-income to the temple of Kōtīśvara by the king. It mentions the Mahāpradhāna So (va) nna Sēnabova and Singana Sāhani.

The Kāpu stone inscription of the same ruler gives him the same birudas and the same phrase regarding his independent rule. It is dated S'ri S'aka-varuṣa 1247 (neya) Rakatākṣi (samvatsarada) Kanyā ... The cyclic year Raktākṣi corresponds to Saka 1246 and not to Saka 1247 the cyclic year of which was Krodhana. The date intended is probably Saka 1246 (A.D. 1324, September). This is another defaced inscription which clearly describes the king as seated on the golden throne (s[u] varna

^{1. 151} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 354, p. 212; Swamikannu, Ind Ephem. IV. pp. 232-235. The cyclic year for Saka 1237 was Rāksasa. But instead of Mṛgaśīrṣa, there is Nija and Vṛścika 13 corresponds correctly to November the 10th Monday. Swamikannu, ibid, p. 233. B. A. S.

^{2. 374} of 1930-1. The latter part of the date is by no means certain. On the back of this slab is a much mutilated Kannada inscription of the Vijayanagara times, mentioning an Odeya and some Mudalis. Ibid.

(simhāsa) na ārūḍhar-āgi) at Bārahakanyāpura, and holding the durbar (oḍḍolagam-koṭṭ-iralu). It records a grant of land (details effaced) made at the request of Śrimān Mahāpradhāna Singaṇa Sāhaṇi and the officials called eraḍu-kōla baḷi niyogis.¹

The Mahālingēśvara temple inscription of Udip; begins directly with the date which is given thus:-Prabhava samvacch (ts) arada Asadha Ba(hula) 3 Ma. Karkkātaka māsa 9 Mangalavāra di. The cyclic year Prabhava corresponds to Saka 1249 but the week day however does not correspond. The date is perhaps meant for Saka 1249 (A.D. 1327) July, Wednesday the 8th and not Tuesday. The king is given the same birudas as in the above Kāpu inscription. Mahāpradhāna Singana Sāhani (but called in this record Sahani), along with Bhōsana (Bhūsana?) Adhikāri, Kodakala Nāvaka of Nadapu and others, gave certain specified forest land for the (services of the) god of Tare-gudde. The epigraph concludes with imprecation that he who violates the grant would suffer the sins of killing cows in Vāranāsi. The engraver's name is given in Devanagari characters as Śrādharanathā which is evidently an error for Śrīdharanātha.2

The fifth inscription of the same ruler was discovered in the Anantapadmanābhasvāmi temple

^{1. 92} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 274, p. 141; Swamikannu, Ind. Ephen. . . . p. 250.

^{2. 118} A. of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 308, p. 159, Swamikannu ibid, IV, p. 257.

at Kudupu. This damaged epigraph calls the king Vīra Soyirāya and adds a third biruda to the two alrady mentioned above—that of Rāya—Gajānkuśa which, as we have already seen, was assumed by Soyideva Alupendradeva's (father and) predecessor Bankideva Alupendradeva. The inscription under review is dated only in the cyclic year Bhava Kumbha 22 (Wednesday) which corresponds to Saka 1257 (A. D. 1335 February Wednesday the 15th). An official named Mainda Heggade is mentioned in the record.

The sixth stone inscription which falls within the reign of Soyideva Ālupendradeva but which was not evidently issued by him is a damaged record found in the Nemīśvara basti at Varanga in the Kārkaļa tāluka. It mentions a chief named Gopīśvararāya, who is given the birudas of Paṇḍita Pāṇḍya, Pāṇḍya Dhanañjaya, and Arirāya Basava S'ankara. The name of the sarvādhikāri Narasinga also occurs in the inscription. It is dated Saka 1 (25) 4 Āṅgīrasa (Mithuna), Su. 10, Thursday which works out to A.D. 1332 June the 4th Thursday.

We have seen that in the undated stone slab set up in the verandah of the same basti at Varanga, belonging to the reign of Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Kulaśekharadeva Ālupendradeva, already cited above, the name Pāṇḍya Dhanañjaya appeared as a biruda of Paṭṭoḍeya, while a prince named Pi(a)ṇḍita Pāṇḍya was also mentioned.³

^{1. 461} of 1928-9; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, p. 58.

^{2. 527} of 1928-9; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, p. 59.

^{3. 526} of 1928-9, op. cit.

Gopīśvararāya has the same biruda like the one assumed by Paṭṭoḍeya, and in addition that of Arirāya Basava S'ankara, which we may note was used by the Ālupa ruler himself. These considerations make it certain that Gopīśvararāya belonged to the royal family in the indirect line, and that he was not an independent ruler.

The birudas Basava S'ankara together with S'rīmat Pāṇḍya Cakravartin and Rāya Gajānkuśa which were borne by the Ālupa rulers were, we may incidentally observe, also used by one of the most prominent of the later Hoysala rulers-Vīra Ballāļa III.

Soyideva Ālupendradeva was succeeded by Vīra Kulaśekharadeva. Two stone inscriptions of this ruler have been discovered. The first is a damaged record found at Niruvāra in the Udipi tāluka. It is dated Śaka 1(26)7 Tāraṇa (Vṛścika), 27, Thursday which corresponds to A.D. 1345, November the 24th Thursday. The inscription mentions a gift to the temple of Durgā Bhagavatī of the same locality.

The other inscription is written in the Grantha script. It was found in the Mahālingesvara temple at Kōṭa in the Udipi tāluka, and it contains the incomplete detail that Jupiter was in Kumbha. The date evidently stands for A.D. 1345. The inscription records an endowment to the same temple of Mahālingesvara at

^{1. 496} of 1928-9; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, p. 58. The cyclic year Tāraņa is probably here meant for Saka 1266 expired with which it agrees. For the cyclic year for Saka 1267 was Pārthiva. Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem., IV., pp. 290-293. B. A. S.

Kōṭa in the Udipi tāluka.¹ If we assume that Soyideva Ālupendradeva's last year was A.D. 1335, then, it may be taken that Vīra Kulaśekharadeva's reign lasted from that date till A.D. 1345-6.

Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva succeeded Vīra Kulaśekharadeva in A.D. 1346. Only two inscriptions directly bearing on the reign of this ruler have been found, while two others may be assigned to him on historical grounds. That Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva's earliest year was A.D. 1346 seems certain both from the inscriptions found in the Mahālingeśvara temple at Brahmāvuru in the Uḍipi tāluka as well as from the supplementary grant recorded on a stone in the Śringeri matha. The former is a damaged epigraph dated Śaka 1 (26)9 Vyaya, Mārgaśīrśa, Śu. 1 (1), Vaḍḍavāra which agrees with A.D. 1346 November the 25th Saturday. The inscription seems to record a gift of land.²

The Śringeri matha inscription is concerned mainly with the endowments made to it by the five famous brothers—Harihara, Bukka, Mārapa, Muddapa, and Kampaṇa, the founders of the Vijayanagara Empire, in the year A.D. 1346. A supplementary grant to the servants of Bhārata Tīrtha Śrīpāda of that pontificate is also made in the same record and is dated in the same year. It is from this that we gather that the ruler who made the supplementary grant was no other than Vīra Pāṇḍya Deva. For it gives him the birudas

^{... 1. 506} of 1928-9.

^{2. 484} of 1928-9; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, p. 59.

Pāṇḍya Cakravartin, Arirāya Basava S'ankara, A Goad to the Elephants the hostile kings. These birudas were worn by the predecessors of Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva, and were, therefore, 'naturally assumed by him. We assume that Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva went to Śriṅgeri along with his queen whose name is given as Kikkāyitāyi which is evidently an error for Cikkāyitāyi, (i. e., Kṛṣṇāyitāyi), in the same inscription.¹

Two other inscriptions that may be assigned to the same ruler are the completely defaced stone inscription found at the entrance to the central shrine of the Pandvesvara temple at Mangalore, and the illegible stone epigraph found at the entrance to the Cakrapāni temple at Attavara also in the same town. The former. however, contains the date one figure of which is damaged: Saka 128 (?), Mīna-māsa 14th Ā. The Government Epigraphist (Mr. K. V. Subrahmanya Aiyar) has substituted 4 for the missing figure. But this (Saka 1284) does not work out correctly, since the cyclic vear for Saka 1284 was Subhakrt. The date, then. according to the calculation of the Madras Government Epigraphist, would be A.D. 1362, March 9th Wednesday. The week day and the cyclic year, according to this calculation, do not agree. Hence we assume that the missing figure in the date of the record may

^{1.} Mahāmahōpādhyaya R. Narasimhacharya was, however, unable to identify this ruler. The inscription in full is given in the famous Śringeri matha epigraph, Sg. 1 of E. C. VI.; Mys. Arch-Rept. for 1916, p. 57.

have been 2 in which case the date would be Saka 1282, Sārvari Mīna-māsa 14th Ā (di). This agrees very well with A.D. 1360, March, Sunday the 8th.

The Cakrapāṇi temple stone inscription is likewise illegible, and the date also contains one figure that is damaged. The Government Epigraphist reads Śaka 128 (9) Parābhava, Meṣa-māsa, 10, Guru. But the cyclic year Parābhava corresponds to Śaka 1288 and not to Śaka 1289 the cyclic year of which was Plavaṅga. If we accept the date as Śaka 128 (8), then, it may stand for A.D. 1366, April, Saturday the 4th. The week day however still does not correspond.²

The inscription records that for the offerings of the god Ānjaneya of the Cakrapāni temple, the following stone inscription was written (bara [e] da śilāśāsanada kramav-ent-endare)—Whereas in former times Kulaśekharadeva, (munna ādi-kāladalu Kulaśekhara-de...), and then it breaks off. If we allot twenty years to Vīra Pāndyadeva, we reach A.D. 1366 which may have been the last year of that ruler. Kulaśekharadeva mentioned in this record was perhaps Kulaśekharadeva Ālupendradeva I, the predecessor of Nūrmmadi Cakravartin. We infer this from the words ādi Kulaśekharadeva in the record. This consideration and the fact that the record follows closely the Pāndyeśvara inscription, and

^{1. 20} of 1901, S. I. I. VII., No., 180, p. 77; Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem. IV, pp. 322, 326.

^{2. 18} of 1901; S. I. I. VII., No. 18, p. 75; Swamikannu, ibid pp. 334, 336.

that it was also found in the same town of Mangalore, enable us to assign the Cakrapāņi temple record to the reign of Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva.

If the above is accepted, then the earliest date for Pāndyadeva's Vira successor Kulaśekharadeva Alupendradeva III may have been A.D. 1366. With this ruler a radical change seems to have come in the faith professed by the Alupas. The inscription in question was found in the Ammanavaru basti in Mūdubidre. It opens in the usual Jaina manner, calls the Alupa ruler a disciple of a well known Jaina priest, and describes him as making endownments to a Jaina basti. Unlike the Alupa inscriptions hitherto examined, the Ammanavaru basti epigraph begins with the accredited Jaina invocation. thus:—S'rīmat-parama-gambhīra - svādvāda - amogha lancchanam iivat trailokva Nathasva sasanam lina-sasanam (Having the honourable supreme profound syād-vāda as a fruit-bearing token, may it prevail, the doctrine of the Lord of three worlds, the Jaina doctrine). Then it proceeds to give the following birudas to the ruler, whom it calls Pandya Cakravartin, thus: svasti samastabhuvana-vikhyāta Soma-kula-tilaka Pāndya Mahārājādhirāja Parameśwara Paramabhattāraka Satva-ratnākara S'aranāgata Vajrapañjara śrimat Cārukirti-divva-śri-pāda-padma ārādhaka parabala-sadhakarum appa srimat Pandya Cakravartin.

Of these birudas seven had already been assumed by the Ālupas: Samasta-bhuvana-vikhyāta, Rāja-paramesvara, Paramabhatṭāraka, S'araṇāgata-vajrapañjara, Soma-kula-tilaka, Pāṇdya-mahārājādhirāja, and Paramesvara. Of

the others śrīmat-Cārukīrti divya-śrī-pāda-padma-ūrādhaka, and para-bala-sādhakarum are similar to those of the many birudas assumed by a Paṭṭi Pombuccha ruler of the Śāntara family, Mahāmaṇḍaleśvara Lokanātharasa (A.D. 1334), whose position in Tuluva history during this period will be discussed in a later connection. The birudas of Lokanātharasa which are strikingly similar to those borne by Kulaśekharadeva Ālupendradeva III, are the following: Samasta-bhuvanāśraya śrīmat-Cārukīrti-Paṇḍita-devara dib(v)ya-śrī-pāda-padma ārādhaka and para-bala-jagad-daļa.¹

The statement that Pāṇḍya-Cakravartin eka-(cchatradim)-rājyam geyyutta-irdd followed immediately by Rāja-gaja-baļa Kulaśekhara Ālupendradeva suggests that it refers only to that Ālupa ruler. This is further proved in a later passage which says that Kulaśekhara Ālupendradeva, while seated on the jewelled throne in the basti of Bidire (i.e., Mūḍubidre) (Kulaśekhara Ālupendra-devaru Bidireya(ba)sadilyalu-ratna-simhāsana-āruḍha... ka-sthitar-āgi), made some specified although illegible endowments for the god Pārśvanātha of Bidire. The golden throne mentioned in the earlier records is now spoken of as a jewelled throne.

The record, inspite of its being defaced in many places, contains the following:—hattu 157394 ne sandu dinam S'aka-varuṣa 1306 Kaliyuga 4484 sanda ... masa (Meṣa) ma-..., S (S') uddha Caturdasiya dina. Kali 4484 corresponds to Saka 1305, while Kali 4485, to Saka 1306,

^{1.} Infra. Ch. III, Sec. 8.

the cyclic year of which was Raktāksa. The date intended was probably A.D. 1384 April Friday the 8th.1

Kulasekharadeva Ālupendradeva III's claims for independence as expressed in the birudas samasta bhuvana-vikhvāta, Pāndva-mahārājādhirāja, Paramesvara cannot be justfied in view of the activities not only of the Santaras, who had already gained ground within the limits of the Alupa kingdom, but also of those of another Karnātaka power which had successfully cast both over the Santaras as well as the Alupas its sway since A.D. 1346. We refer here to the Vijavanagara rulers who had placed their viceroy over Barakuru in Śaka 1307 (A. D. 1385-6.)²

There is one name among the Alupa rulers which may be mentioned here. It is that of Alupa Kamadevarasa about whom a much damaged and undated record was found in the Durga Parameśvari temple at Iruvaila in the Kārkala tāluka. This is the only inscription concerning him. It seems to register a gift of land.3 Nothing more can be determined about this figure in Alupa history.

Kulaśekharadeva Ālupendradeva III was succeeded by (his son and successor) Vīra Pāndvadeva III. Only one inscription of this ruler has been discovered in the Gauri temple at Prantya in Mudubidre. This record begins in the usual Alupa style with a svasti.

^{1. 53} A of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 225, p. 113; Swamikannu Ind. Ephem. IV. pp. 368, 370.

^{2.} Infra Chapter III.

^{3. 477} of 1928-1929.

and then proceeds to give most of the birudas assumed by Vīra Pāndyadeva III's predecessor Kulaśekhara Ālupendradeva III but not those referring to the Jaina teacher Cārukīrti Pandita. On the other hand, it clearly points to the strong hold which the earlier Saivite religion still had on the Ālupa royal house which was now gradually sinking into insignificance. The following birudas are given to Vīra Pāndyadeva:—Samasta bhuvana-vikhyāta, Soma-kula-tilaka, Pāndya-mahārājādhirāja, Parames'vara, Paramabhatṭāraka, Satya-ratnākara, S'aranāgata vajra-pañjara, S'rī-Mañjunātha-devara śrī-pāda-padma-āradhakar-appa, Para-bala-sādhakarum-appa, śrīmat Pāndya Cakravarti Rā (ya-Gajānkus'a) s'rī-Vīra Pāndya-dēvaru.

The substitution of the biruda śrī-Mañjunātha-devara śripāda-padma-āradhakar (Worshipper at the lotus feet of god Mañjunātha) for the biruda śrimat-Cārukīrti-divya-śri-pāda-padma-āradhakar assumed by Kulaśekharadeva Ālupendradeva III, is to be borne in mind in our estimate of the diffusion of different religious creeds in Tuļuvanādu.

Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva III is said to be ruling the kingdom under the shadow of one umbrella (eka-cchatradim rājyam-geyyuttam irdda). This, as we have already seen, was used to denote the independent status of Kulaśekharadeva Ālupendradeva III.

The similarity of all the birudas except those pertaining to the faith of the rulers, and the phrase used to express their political position, as given in the above records of Vīra Pāṇdyadeva III and Kulaśekhara-

deva III, clearly prove that they belonged to the same family. This is further corroborated by the distinctive Ālupa biruda Rāya-Gajānkuśa borne by Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva III. These considerations are enough to invalidate the statement made by the Government Epigraphist (Mr. G. Venkoba Rao) that Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva III was not an Ālupa ruler.

The record is dated 1577 (311) andina...S'aka-varuṣam 1318 san (du) Va (r) ttamāna...Iśvara-samvtsarada-simha māsa Āditya-vūradandu. This corresponds to Saka 1319, the cyclic year of which was Iśvara, in which case the date intended was perhaps A.D. 1397 August the 5th Sunday.²

The inscription records a grant to Durga Devi (of the Gauri temple) of Mūdubidre.

The ruler who succeeded Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva III was Kulaśekhara Ālupendradeva IV. Only two epigraphs of this ruler have been found. One was discovered in the Gauri temple at Mūḍubidre. It begins in the old Ālupa manner with svasti śrī, and merely relates that when Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Kulaśekhara Ālupendradeva was ruling the kingdom under the shadow of his sole

^{1.} Ep. Rept. for 1926, pp. 108-9. Mr. Venkoba Rao seems to have confounded Vīra Pāṇḍya of the Ālupa family with a later Vīra Pāṇḍya of the Bhairarasa family of Kārkaļa. B. A. S.

^{2. 50} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 221, p. 111, Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem. IV. p. 397. August 5th is taken here on the assumption that it is the first Adivāra in Simha. But this is a mere supposition. B. A. S.

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umbrella (Pāṇḍya-cakravartin Kulase (s'e) kharāļpendradevar eka-cchatra [dim] rājyam-geyyutt-ire.)

The date which follows is wrongly given thus:—
(S'aka-nrpa) kālātīta-s(am)vatsarada 1363 neya Raktākṣi-sam
...and then the effaced epigraph proceeds to record a
grant of land for the naivedya of the goddess Durgādevī
[of Mūḍubidre]. The cyclic year Raktākṣi corresponds
to Śaka 1366 (A.D.1444-5) and not to Śaka 1363, the cyclic
year of which was Durmatī.¹

Another inscription has to be referred to this ruler. It is a stone epigraph found in the grounds of the Kanara High School, Mangalore, and is dated only in the cyclic year Raktāksi Mesa-māsa 12 neya Ādivaradandu. The inscription contains a great many details concerning temple management which will be discussed in connection with the features of administration under the Alupas. Here we may note that it mentions an Alupa in the following terms: Mangalāpurada hiriya ruler aramaneya Bhuvanāsrayada mogasāleyalu samasta-pradhānarum yeradu-kolu-baliyam verasu(m)oddolagam-kottirdda-āprastā-vanadalu Aliya Vīra Banki Devarasargge Mugurunādina-rājyam biduvalli Māva Kulasekhara-devarsarum Aliya Banki Devarasarum Bankesvara Devarige silā-sāsanam gendu kotta kramavent-endade... In the older (or senior) palace at Mangalore (Mangalapurada hiriya-aramaneya), in the front room of the public audience hall of which

^{1. 53} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 224, pp. 112-3, 511; Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem. V. pp. 84, 90.

^{2. 23} B of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 185, pp. 81-2.

by name the "Refuge of the World" (bhuvanāśrayada moga-sāleyalu), with all the ministers and the eraḍu-kōlu-bali officials, on the occasion of the public audience, the kingdom of Mugurunādu was assigned to Aliya [nephew] Bankidevarasa by his uncle [māva] Kulaśekhara dēvarasa. On this the king Kulaśekhara together with Aliya Bankideva made an endowment to the god Bankeśvara.

We have to find out the age of epigraph and the identity of the ruler Kulasekara and of his nephew Bankideva. The cyclic year Raktāksi agrees with any one of the following Saka years-1126, 1186, 1246, 1306. and 1366. The epigraph in question cannot be dated to Saka 1126 for the following reasons:-In Saka 1126 (A.D. 1204-5) the king is given many titles among which, as seen already, Pāndya-Cakravartin Rāya(ra) Bhuiabala1 are important. His name is spelt Vira Kolasekhara Alvendradeva. In none of the three inscriptions of this Alupa king are his relatives mentioned. These titles, the more corrupt form of the name, and the absence of the name of any of his relatives suggest that he could not have been the Kulasekhara mentioned in the stone inscription found in Mangalore.

The inscription cannot be dated to Saka 1186. We know from the Alupa records that Vira Pāndyadeva Alupendra I was ruling from A. D. 1254 till A. D. 1267.

^{1. 51} of 1901, op. cit.

It cannot be that the Kulásekharadeva of the Mangalore inscription ruled at the same time.

The epigraph cannot be placed in Saka 1246 (A.D. 1324) for the same reason. Soyideva Alupendradeva was ruling from A.D. 1315 till A.D. 1357. Moreover, it was only in the reign of his predecessor Bankideva Alupendra II in A.D. 1302 that the palace at Mangalūru was called merely Srīmatu rājadhāni Mangalūpurada(a) ramaneya moga-sāle,¹ and the palace itself was styled simply Bhuvanāśraya.² This proves that in the days of Bankideva Alupendradeva II, and, we may presume, in those of his successor Soyideva as well, the palace at Mangalore was not called hiriya aramane, as it is styled in the Mangalore record. We have, therefore, to date the Kanara High School inscription to a later age in order to understand the term hiriya aramane applied to it.

Now, there remain two Saka years to which the Kanara High School inscription can be assigned:—Saka 1306 and Saka 1366. In A.D. 1384 Kulasekhara Alupendra deva III and in A.D. 1444 Kulasekhara Alupendradova IV reigned. It is difficult to determine to which of these two names the Kulasekhara of the Kanara High School inscription has to be referred. We may venture to suggest, however, the following:—That the record in question cannot be referred to the reign of Kulasekharadeva III for the following reasons:—This ruler is given a string of birudas which are not found in the

^{1. 17} of 1901, op. cit.

^{2 338} of 1930-31. See infra The Capitals.

Kanara High School inscription. He is represented as ruling from his jewelled throne at Mūdubidre, and as a patron of jainism, who gave a grant to the god Pārśvanātha of that city.¹ These considerations are inapplicable to the Kulaśekhara of the Kanara High School inscription. For, as we shall explain while describing the features of administration under the Ālupas, the Kulaśekharadeva of the Kanara High School record was a patron of Brahmanism, as the detailed regulations pertaining the temple of the god Bankeśvara entered in that inscription, and the fact that the grant was made by the king Kulaśekharadeva himself together with his Aliya Bankideva clearly prove.

There remains Saka 1366 when there reigned Kulasekharadeva Ālupendradeva IV. One inscription of this ruler dated wrongly in Saka 1363 (i. e., 1366) but in the cyclic year Raktāksi has already been noticed by us. This inscription registers a grant to the goddess Durgā. The ruler is styled Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Kulasekhara Ālupendradeva. We believe that the Kanara High School record dated only in the cyclic year Raktāksi is to be assigned to Saka 1366, and that the Māva (uncle) Kulasekharadeva, the patron of Brahmans, of that record is to be identified with Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Kulasekharadeva.

The date of this inscription (S'aka 1366 Raktākṣi Meṣa māsa 12 neṣa Ādivara) would, then, correspond to

^{1. 53} A 1901, op. cit. 2. 53 of 1901, op. cit.

A.D. 1444 April the 7th Tuesday, the week day not corresponding.1

SOME CHIEFTAINS

Kulasekharadeva Alupendradeva IV was the last of the prominent Alupas, so far as the epigraphs concerning them are concerned. With him the flickering vestiges of Alupa power may be said to have vanished. The name Alupa was too great, however, to be entirely annihilated. And so we find it lingering on till the sixteenth century and after. Three names of chieftains exercising some sort of political authority are met with in inscriptions of the later ages. A stone inscription found in the Hacevettu village in the Karkala tāluka, records a grant of land to the temple of Mahādeva at Ittala (Vitthala?) by Kāntaņa Māra Āļuva alias Komna for offerings and perpetual lamps and for feeding Brahmans. This was in the reign of the Vijavanagara king Virūpāksa Rāva (A.D. 1384-A.D. 1404). The inscription is dated only in the cyclic year Tarana. Makara 6. Thursday, when there was a solar eclipse. The cyclic year Tāraņa agrees with Śaka 1326 and the date works out correctly to January 1st A.D. 1405, when there was a solar eclipse.2

We have seen above that Vira Pandyadeva III ruled from A.D. 1396 till A.D. 1436. It cannot be that Kantana Māra Āluvā alias Komņa exercised any regal authority during these years. Hence it has to be supposed that

^{1.} Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem. V, p. 90.

^{2. 519} of 1928-9; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, p. 55.

he was a member of the royal family entrusted with the charge of administering unspecified districts. Whatever that may be, the Komna branch has given two more chieftains to Tuluva.

One of them was Devannarasa alias Komna who is mentioned in two stone inscriptions. In the earlier of these records, it is related that his sister Sanakarā-devi made a gift of the produce of some of her lands to the (Anantanātha?) basti at Kiyaruvara for offerings and worship. The stone inscription which gives us these details was found in the Anantanātha basti at Nellikāru in the Kārkaļa tāluka. It is dated Saka 1447 Tāraṇa, Dhanus 15, Sunday. This corresponds but for the week day which happens to be Tuesday the 13th and not Sunday, to A.D. 1524, December. No overlord is mentioned in this record.

The other record dealing with Dēvaṇṇarasa alias Komṇa was found iu Sirtāḍi in the Kārkaļa tāļuka. This inscription, however, mentions Cimṇarāja Oḍeyar, who was evidently the Vijayanagar viceroy. It records the construction of a new basti and an endowment of seventy-six varāhas by Dēvaṇṇnrasa alias Komṇa. With this amount some land was purchased at Arjjināpura and left in charge of Kōtyaṇṇa Āļva for the conduct of worship. The epigraph is dated Saka 1453

^{1. 522} of 1928-9; Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem. V. p. 251, 253. The cyclic year Tāraṇa agrees with Saka 1446, while Pārthiva, with Saka 1447. In the latter instance, the date works out to December the 13th Wednesday A.D. 1525. Swamikannu, ibid, p. 253. B. A. S.

Vikiti, Meşa 15 Sunday which agrees with A.D. 1530 April the 10th Sunday which however was Meşa 14.³ The two records make it clear that Devannarasa alias Komna was entrusted with some governmental authority from A.D. 1524 till A.D. 1530.

The third name in the Komna branch is that furnished by the inscription written in Sanskrit and Kannada found in the Anantnātha basti at Nellikāru in the same tāluka. This undated inscription mentions no king but merely records that the hall (mandira) of the caitya (i.e., the Jaina basti evidently) was caused to be built by the famous Manjana Komna Bhūpa.²

9. UNIDENTIFIED ALUPA KINGS

A few names in the Alupa genealogy cannot be fixed with the meagre information that is before us. One of the earlier inscriptions is the defaced record discovered

- 1. 524 of 1928-9; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, p. 60. It cannot be determined whether the name Cimnarāja Odeyar mentioned in the above record was identical with Cimnarāja Odeyar, who was the officer under 'Ain-ul-Mulk Gilāni, and who punished the insubordinate thānadar Dilāwar Khān, as mentioned in a record dated A.D. 1562. Saletore, S. P. Life., I, pp. 382-383.
- 2. 520 of 1928-9. The name Alupa still survives among the Bunts, and in one or two families of Roman Catholics chiefly of Udayāvara and Udipi. In a later chapter we shall see how in one of the most famous Tulu Pādadānas, called Koṭi and Cennaya, a Sāma Aļva will figure. In a stone inscription dated Saka 1437 sanda aarttamāna, Aļuva Pāndi Seṭṭi, Aļuva Kōṭi Seṭṭi, and Aļuva Nāra (ya) na Seṭṭi (42 of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 212, p. 109) are mentioned. The Government Epigraphist (Mr. K. V. Subrahmanya Aiyar) correctly states that the cyclic year referred to is Dhāṭṛi (i. e., A.D. 1516). Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem. V, p. 234.

in the Anantesvara temple at Udipi. It is an undated record which opens with iri svasti unlike the majority of the Alupa inscriptions we have hitherto examined. It then proceeds to narrate the following:—narenummappa porisam nātham Kavi (mu? Vima?) lāditvan-ādandu (huvi) tap (p) idakke sasti om (māna) kere pa ... nd-udāro (m).1 From this indistinct and incomplete inscription all that we can gather are the names Kavi Vimalāditya and (his shield-bearer?) Nārenu (Nārāyana?). the genealogy from Māramma Ālvarasa till Citravāhana II, as we have pointed out in the previous pages, is unbroken. Kavi Vimalāditya is to be placed either before Māramma Āļvarasa or after Citravāhana II. he were the predecessor of Māramma Ālvarasa, we would have had some clue to this in the inscription of the latter. The absence of the slightest hint in regard to this suggests that Kavi Vimaladitya may have reigned in the troublesome times that followed the reign of Citravahana II

An undated stone inscription found in Kariyangala near Polali Ammunije in the Mangalore tāluka, mentions Ālupa Kumāra Pāndya Jayasingarasa, and a gift made by him to the goddess Holala Bhattārakī. On the following considerations this inscription may be placed at the end of the eighth century A.D. Firstly, the fact that the inscription calls the goddess Holala Bhattāraki and not Durgā Parameśvarī, as the people

^{1. 118} of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 307, pp. 158-59.

^{2: 380} of 1927-8.

now call her, proves that the inscription belongs to that early period when the people had retained the original Buddhist name of the goddess. may have been in about the eighth century A.D. Secondly, the inscription was found in Kariyangala which has yielded two other epigraphs-that relating to Raņasāgara whom we have placed in the first quarter of the eighth century A. r., and that concerning Bankideva Alupendradeva II dated A.D. 1304. inscription under review could not have belonged to the latter Alupa ruler for two reasons: it mentions clearly the goddess Holala Bhattaraki, while the later inscription of the times of Bankideva Alupendradeva II calls the same deity Holaladeva! Such confusion could never have taken place in one and the same Moreover, if the record in question had belonged to the reign of Bankideva Alupendradev II, it would have The absence contained some reference to that ruler. of any reference to that ruler suggests that the two records do not belong to the same reign. We may, therefore, place Alupa Kumāra Pāndya Jayasingarasa in the ninth or tenth century A.D., when the Alupas had dynastic connection with the Santaras from whom they borrowed the name Pandya.

Since the epithet Kumāra appears in the inscription it may not be far wrong to assume that Kumāra Pāndya Jayasingarasa belonged to the Ālupa family. This is confirmed by the first name Ālupa which the prince bore as well as by the fact that he is said to have be-

longed to the Lunar race (Soma-kula) and "far famed in the World". It has been made clear that Pṛthvī-sagara, whom we have assigned to the middle of the eighth century A.D., was the earliest Ālupa ruler to claim descent from the Lunar race. We have elsewhere shown that the Buddhist goddess Tārā known popularly by her Hinduized appellation of Durgā, was most popular in the eighth century A.D. This explains why the goddess in the inscription is called Holala Bhaṭṭāraki and not Durgā Parameśvarī, as we have it in the later records of the same place.

Under these circumstances the assertions of the Madras Government Epigraphist (Mr. G. V. Srinivasa Rao) that Ālupa Kumāra Pāṇḍya Jayasingarasa was a Cālukya feudatory, and that he belonged to the Ucchangi Pāṇḍya line,² are to be rejected. The fact that in the Western Cālukya genealogy the name Jayasinga appears, and that the name Pāṇḍya was ommon to the Ālupas and to the Ucchangi rulers, are no arguments to institute a relationship between the Ālupa rulers, who were of the Soma-kula and the Nolambavāḍi Ucchangi Pāṇḍyas, who claimed decent from the Pallayas.³

^{1.} Saletore, Wild Tribes, pp. 25-28.

^{2.} Ep. Rept. for 1921-8, pp. 59-60.

^{3.} See Rice, Mys. & Coorg. pp. 55, 59, 61, 63.

10. FEATURES OF ADMINISTRATION UNDER THE ALUPAS

The epigraphs which we have examined not only give us a genealogical account of the Alupa rulers but also some interesting details concerning the manner in which they conducted their administration. These records deserve an independent study, since it is only with their aid that we shall be able to judge the veracity of purely traditional narratives relating to other phases of the life of the people not revealed in the stone epigraphs. The partial picture which is thus got from the stone inscriptions will have to be read in conjunction with the more elaborate narratives which we have gathered exclusively from folklore and which we have deferred for a later treatment in this treatise. Turning to the stone records we find that they contain statements which may be grouped under the following heads:—the king and his officials. capitals, municipal corporations, rural administration, army, taxation, and social solidarity.

(A) THE KING AND HIS OFFICIALS

What precisely was the conception of royalty in the minds of the people in the early days of Alupa history cannot be made out from the epigraphical records. The earliest Alupa rulers have, as we have seen, merely *śrimat* prefixed to their names, thus denoting that they were of indigenous, though not necessarily of Tuluva, extraction; and that they did not attempt to give a

classical colouring to their descent. This biruda of śrīmat is coupled with others,...(d)anda-vibhūta-vistīrņa pitāmaha-avalokana, samvarddhita-kula-abhimāna (one who had spread his fame by the might of his arms, one who was looked upon with affection by his grand-father, and one who had increased the fame of his family), in the case of Śrīmat Āļvarsar, who has been provisionally assigned to the beginning of the seventh century A. D. The next step in the examination of the birudas is reached when we come to reign of Chitravāhana I. It is interesting to observe that in the two records of his overlord the Western Cālukya monarch Vinayāditya Satyāśraya, Citravāhana is called śrīmat mahārāja.

Not till we come to the times of Śvetavāhana, whom we have ventured to place in the first half of the ninth century A. D., do we get a hint as regards the popular conception of government. Pāṇḍyavillarasa's son Dēvu, who fought on behalf of Śvetavāhana, is described to have been "beloved by the good and shunned by the wicked" (sādhu priyan asādu-varjitan). This expression is strikingly similar to the one which denoted a special function of sovereignty in the later ages. A ruler was expected to govern the country (like a father) putting down the wicked and upholding the good (duṣṭa nighraha śiṣṭa prati-pālanadim). It is this idea which is evidently included in one of the birudas of Śvetavāhana's successor Pṛthvīsāgara, whom we have assigned to the middle of the eighth century A.D.

^{1. 105} of 1901, op. cit.

He is called the Terror of the Wicked (dusta-bhayanka-rargge ista-bhrtyan-appa).1

Prthvīsāgara was indeed an ambitious ruler. The simple birudas of the earlier kings were exchanged by him for the more elaborate ones including that given above. They were the following:—The illustrious Alupendra (S'rīmat Alupendra) who had sprung from the Moon (Soma-vamśa-udbhava), the Ornament of his family (kula-tilakam), Udayāditya, Uttama Pāṇḍya, and the illustrious Aluvarasa.²

With the inclusion of the birudas Parameśwara and Adhirājarāja by his successor Vijayāditya Māramma in the last quarter of the eighth century A. D., the Ālupa rulers may be said to have given the fullest expression to their ambitious designs.

That the earlier conception of sovereignty still continued in the popular mind in the middle of the tenth century A.D., is proved by two of the many birudas given to Kundavarmarasa II:—uddāma bāhu-vīryeṇa rakṣitāḥ-kṣitimaṇḍalāḥ (One who, endowed with great physical strength, protected the corners of the world shining in the moonlight of pure fame) and dattām bhuvam nirākṛtya balāt-viśvāsa ghātinam (One who by his valour recovered his kingdom after defeating traitorous wicked enemy (to whom he had given land [formerly]). A singular biruda of this ruler is that relating to the abandonment (or causing to abandon) the evil of drinking liquor - surā-pāna kṛito-de(do)ṣoyena rājñā-nirā-

^{1. 101} of 1901, op. cit.

^{2. 102} of 1901, op. cit.

krtah. It must be confessed that information is not forthcoming to show to what extent the evil said to have been removed by the ruler was rampant in the Alupa kingdom. Nevertheless the significance of the biruda seems to be that the people gave to sovereignty an attribute in addition to the one mentioned above, viz., that of associating royalty with a moral obligation which is not generally met with in the Karnāṭaka records¹.

From Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra (A.D. 1113-A.D. 1155) onwards the Ālupa rulers prefixed imperial titles to their names. The birudas of this prominent ruler were, as we have already noted, samasta-bhuvanāśraya, śrī-pṛthvīvallabha, mahārājādhirāja, parameśvara, and paramabhaṭṭāraka. With him comes into prominence a phrase which had already received considerable significance in contemporary Karnāṭaka history, viz., that which described monarchs as ruling in the enjoyment of peace and pleasant (or profitable) conversations (sukha-sankathā-vinodadim rājyam-geyuttam-ire.), especially, it would appear, stories relating to benefactions for charity or religious merit (dharma)³.

^{1.} Even Kautalya seems to promulgate that a king should prohibit drinking (and gambling) only in a military camp. Arthaśāstra, Bk. X, 364, p. 421 (Sastry's ed. 1923).

^{2.} The birudas samasta-bhuvana-vikhyāta, Pāndya-rājādhirāja, Parameśvara, Paramabhattāraka, etc., given to Udayāditya Pāndya Pattigadeva, the predecessor of Kavi Alupendra I, are met with only in the inscription of Kulasekhara Alupendradeva I in the thirteenth century A.D., and not in the reign of Pattigadeva himself. B. A. S.

^{3.} Cf. Rice, My. & Coorg, pp. 167-168.

Thus was added a third constituent to royal authority, viz., that of conceiving a ruler as a protector of dharma by virtue of his having listened to the pleasant and peaceful stories of benefactions. One more example will suffice to show how this idea had come to stay in the mind of the people even in later ages. Bankideva Ālupendra II, as already seen, was ruling in A.D. 1302 a victorious and ever increasing kingdom thus:—vijayarājyam-attara-uttara-abhivṛddhi pravṛdhamāna-ācandrārkka tārāmbaram (saluttam-ire) duṣṭa nighraha ṣiṣṭa pratipāla-nakar-āgi sukha-sankathā vinodadim rājyam geyyuttam-irdda.¹

In the matter of appending the birudas and the phrases relating to sovereignty, the Alupas only followed the Karnātaka usage which had from early times been in vogue. In one detail, however, the inscriptions hitherto discovered do not enlighten us, viz. the appointment of yuva-rajas or crown princes over different parts of the kingdom. Certain considerations suggest beyond doubt that, in spite of any explicit reference to a yuva-rāja administering the country at the dictates of the king, in any of the epigraphs, the Alūpa kings must nevertheless have entrusted the yuva-rajas with some duties pertaining to government. The name of Alupa Kumāra Jayasingarasa, whose age we have discussed above, suggests that he may have been a yavarāja, although, it must be admitted, there is no evidence to prove our assertion. The fact that in A.D. 1254 Vīra Pāndva Ālupendradeva I issued an order in

^{1. 17} of 1901, op. cit.

the presence of his Aliya (nephew) Bankideva, as we have seen above, does not invalidate the assumption that the Ālupa rulers must have been aware of the many advantages accruing from appointing yuva-rājas to important offices in the state.

This supposition is strengthened by the fact that that ruler himself conducted important public affairs along with his crowned queen Balla Mahādevī. We have seen that in A.D. 1262 he fixed the annual imports of the two villages of Kundāpūru and Kūḍikūra in the presence of government officials. It is not surprising, therefore, that the queen, who in A.D. 1267 had participated in the conduct of public business, should have carried on the administration herself in A.D. 1277, obviously on the death of her husband Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva Ālupendradeva.¹

This does not seem to be the only example of a crowned queen administering the country in Ālupa history. From the Pañcalingesvara temple stone inscription found in Kōtekēri near Bārakūru of the king Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra, and dated A.D. 1155, it may reasonably be surmised that his queen Paṇḍya Mahādevī likewise took part in public affairs. For the inscription mentions that to the city corporation (nagara samūha) of the town Pannirpaļļi, which belonged to (or which was ruled over by) the Pāṇḍya Mahādevī(ā ūran-āļva Pāṇḍya Mahādeviyara nagara samūhakke), a specified gift of land was made.

^{1. 491} of 1928-9, op. cit.

....

The above record is interesting from another point of view. The gift of land in question was made by dignitaries who hailed from Kāśmīra. They are thus described:—Born in the city of Pajjera which belonged to the locality (district?) of Pravarapura near the secred waters of Kāśmīra (sri-Kāṣmīra-[śrī] jalada śrī Pravarpurada adhiṣṭānada[Pajjera]purada sthānadalu huṭṭida), devotees of Śaradā-devī(Srī-Sā[S'ā]radādeviya), and children of Śrīyūṭi Rāṇa and Dēgōna Rāṇi—the śrī-sāvāsi Maṇinoja Rāṇa's younger brother Śrī Sāji Rāṇa. The gift was made up of land in which fourteen muras of rice could be sowed, situated in Pannirpaṭḷi (the meaning of guḍigallu Nālguṇḍada [the stone of the temple of Nālguṇḍa?] being not clear).

In the same inscription the term $s\bar{a}v\bar{a}si$ occurs in the following context concerning the above gift of land:— $dh\bar{a}r\bar{a}\text{-}p\bar{u}rvvakav\bar{a}gi\ eradu\text{-}kotta\ tappu\ bh\bar{u}miya\ n\bar{e}gilan\ h\bar{u}dida$ $s\bar{a}v\bar{a}sigala\ gundikeya...\text{the precise meaning of which is}$ also not clear. To what the tappu bhūmiya nēgilan hūdida $s\bar{a}v\bar{a}sigala\ (\text{of the Savasis who had ploughed the wrong}$ field) refers, is not apparent from the epigraph. For our purpose we may note that the term $s\bar{a}v\bar{a}si$ thus occurring twice in the above inscription is significant in the sense that it points out to an official in the palace who was invested with the affairs of the royal ladies, or perhaps to one who was a Master of the Robes. A Bauddha $s\bar{a}v\bar{a}si$, we may be permitted to observe,

^{1. 171} of 1901, op. cit.

is mentioned in A.D. 1098, and a superintendent of $s\bar{a}v\bar{a}sis$ in A.D. $1176.^1$

A few more details are available concerning some of the highest officials in the Alupa government. There is no evidence to prove that the Alupas had under them the high dignitary called the great Minister for Peace and War (mahā-sāndhi-vighrahika), who is mentioned in contemporary Cālukya records. But all the same they were aware of such an high office, as is proved by the Sohrab plates dated A.D. 692, which we have already referred to in an earlier connection. The name of the official who wrote this inscription is given as the Mahā-sāndhi-vighrahika Rainapuṇya Vallabha. Since the gift recorded in this inscription was made at the application of the Mahārāja Citravāha I, and since it related to a village within his jurisdiction, it is evident that that high official was known to the Alupa ruler.²

Four kind of ministers are distinctly mentioned in the Alupa records. Of these three were probably concerned only with political duties, while the last one was to look after the religious affairs. The three ministers in charge of political affairs were the mahā-pradhāna or the great minister, the sāmanta-pradhāna

^{1.} Rice, Mys. & Coorg., p. 203; E. C. VII. Sb. 170, p. 24.

^{2.} It may be remarked here that the evidence we have here cited proves that under the Western Cālukyas the office of a mahā-sāndhi-vighrahika existed in the last quarter of the seventh century A.D. The assertion of Rice (Mys. & Coorg., p. 169) that that official is seen only in the eighth century A.D., is, therefore, to be rectified. B. A. S.

or the minister over the feudatories, and the pradhana or minister. In the undated Beluvavi stone inscription of the reign of Bhujabala Kavi Alupendradeva I (A.D. 1113-A.D. 1155), Mahāpradhāna Arasa Heggade is mentioned.1 The Gauri temple stone inscription of Kulasekhara Alupendradeva I dated A.D. 1205-6, contains only the designation S'rīmanu (S'rīman) mahāpradhāna. the name of the official being unfortunately effaced.2 The Mahāpradhāna Sovanna Senabova is mentioned in the Padebettu stone inscription of Sovideva Alupendradeva, dated A.D. 1324-25, already cited above.³ The suffix senabova attached to the name of the mahapradhana suggests that the post of a great minister was by no means confined to higher social orders, but that it was open also to the humbler sections of the people like the accountants (senabovas) and the like.4

The sāmanta-pradhānas are mentioned collectively (sāmanta-pradhānaru) in A. D. 1315 in the Somanātheśvara temple stone record of Soyideva Ālupendradeva.⁵ The sāmanta-pradhānas under the Ālupas were in all likelihood entrusted with the same duties which the Karnāṭaka monarchs allotted to their sāmantādhipatis, viz., duties concerning feudatories.⁶ The pradhānas or ministers are often met with in the Ālupa inscriptions.

^{1. 61} of 1901, op. cit.

^{2. 52} of 1901, op. cit.

^{3. 374} of 1930-31, op. cit.

^{4.} The senabovas were not always recruited from the Brahmans. B. A. S.

^{5. 157} of 1901, op. cit.

^{6.} On Samantadhipatis, read, Rice, Mys. & Coorg., p. 170.

Pradhāna Ar (p) a Heggade is mentioned in the record from the Pañcalingesvara temple of the times of Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra dated A. D. 1155. We have already seen that Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva Ālupendradeva I (A. D. 1254-A. D. 1267) made gifts on various occasions in the company of high state officials among whom were the pradhānas or ministers.

Two other offficers must also have been known to the Alupa rulers, although it cannot be asserted that they were included among the Alupa category. These were the mahāmanḍalika and the mahāmanḍaleśvara, both of whom rose to great prominance in later Karnātaka history. Certain manḍalika mahāmanḍalikas, described to have been prominent persons in the army of Komara (Kumāra?) (Komara-danḍa mukhyarāgidda manḍalike-mahāmanḍalikar), are also stated to have submitted to Bankideva Alupendra I, in the undated Someśvara temple inscription found in Mūḍukēri in Bārakūru.² In the reign of the same ruler we saw Srīmān Mahāmanḍaleśvara Rāya Sāltiraṭṭa... in A.D. 1058, according to the unfinished epigraph found in Udayāvara.³

Religious affairs were under the minister called dharma-karanika. We gather this from the Kigga inscription of the Mahārāja Citravāhana I assigned to about A.D. 675 which, after laying a penalty on those

^{1. 171} of 1901, op. cit.

^{2. 136} of 1901, op . cit.

^{3. 95} of 1901, ep. cit.

who dared to enjoy the produce given as a gift to the Kilgāneśvara god, ends thus:- "Taking a clean place, Senavarasa and Dharma-karanika will divide and give the palace office share on a smooth plastered floor (or evenly plastered over)." The Devedittiver and the Saer, whom we have already mentioned in the same connection above,1 seem to have been entrusted with some unspecified work in connection with temple endowments under the dharma-karanika. From the record in question it is clear that the dharma-karanika shared with another dignitary the responsible work of checking the revenue produce which was given in kind. The above seems to have been a very early instance of a dharmakaranika having been coupled with other state officials. In the twelfth century and after the offices of dharmadhyaksas and raiyadhyaksas, especially in the Kalacuriya times, were given moral and political duties.2

The injunction in the above Kigga stone inscription assigned to about A.D. 675 that the paddy produce, cow's milk, bullock,... of the god Kīlgāneśvara excepting the attendants of the gods, "no one is (permitted) to enjoy", and the fact of the existence of a dharmakaranika with the dēveditteyar and the sāer under him, enable us to conclude that the Ālupa rulers from the earliest times took particular care of the religious institutions in their kingdom. This tradition was handed down to later Ālupa rulers who made, as we

^{1.} Supra Section 3.

^{2.} See Rice, Mys. & Coorg, p. 170.

have already seen, endowments to temples in the presence of great ministers and officials of the state, obviously with a view to ensure not only a proper conduct of the items mentioned in the grants, but also to indicate that the king had an abiding interest in the welfare of the religious institutions. We shall deal with this phase of the question presently.

That even in the fourteenth century the earlier tradition of the king co-operating with his officials and important citizens in such matters continued to be a feature of the Alupa administration is proved by the Someśvara temple stone inscription dated A.D. 1315 of reign of Soyideva Alupendradeva I. This inscription relates that when the king was seated on his golden throne, his nephew (Aliya) Bankidevarasa along with the sāmanta-pradhānas, the (deśa)-purusas, the high officials of the two divisions called eradu-kolu balis and others (eradu kolu baliyum bahattara niyogigalu muntagi), special grant to Banki Senabova's (man?) made a Annadata Heggade. The latter received specified gifts of land in Aiduru, obviously on behalf of the god Somanatha of Manigarakeri where stands the temple of the god. The inscription continues to narrate that the king gave ten honnu (gold) for the lights of the same god. Further it says the following:—ā bālinge tēremadila a(r)ppisuva appaņe-salva ar(a)sana mānis(s)yaru h(en)gasa(ru) bīdu dēvasva(vā)gi ā S'omanāthdevara manis(s) yarē nodi ā dharmava nadasuvaru. prosperous continuance of the endowment made by the

king, therefore, while men and women, in compliance with the king's orders, were to give their contributions towards the royal property applicable to (meant for) the service of the god, only the officials of the temple of the god Somanātheśvara, however, were entitled to look after the dharma mentioned above. The noblemen of Aidūru seem to have agreed to this, for the next sentence runs thus:—Aidūru muntāgi oḍeyaru māḍida dharma.¹

In the list of Government officials mention may be made of the engraver of stone epigraphs. The inscription of Śrīmat Āļuvarsar assigned to about A.D. 600, affirms that Śrī-Kāļādityan dharegoļānmam, (Lord of the world) wrote (baredōn) the śāsana.² One of the Śambhukallu records of Vijayāditya Māramma (A.D.750-A.D. 770) was written by Raṇadhāri (Raṇadhāri-likhita).³ The only exception to the general rule of engravers writing their name in Kannada is that of Śrādharanāthā (Śrīdharanātha?) in A.D. 1327⁴ mentioned in an earlier context. The office of the engraver developed into a prominent institution under the Vijayanagara rulers.⁵

In another detail too the Ālupas were influenced by the the practice prevalent in the Karnāṭaka. And this was in regard to the provision which was made to commemorate the services of those who had fallen in a

^{1. 157} of 1991.

^{2. 96} of 1901; S. I. I, VII, No. 279, p. 143.

^{3. 98} of 1901; E. I. 1X, p. 22.

^{4. 118} A of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 308, p. 159.

^{5.} Saletore, S. P. Life., I, pp. 273-282.

fight or in a battle. Sometimes merely inscribed stones were erected in memory of the fallen heroes. The earliest instances of such stones are found in the times of Raṇasāgara. For instance, on the death of Śūdraka Nāgamma, Raṇasāgara himself made a gift in appreciation of his valour. On behalf of Nalimaṇi Nāga Dīkṣira Sāgara, who had fought on behalf of Raṇasāgara against Nāpaḍe, a memorial stone was erected by his younger brothers (ātana tammukaļ nīrisida kallu).

Heroes who fell in a fight were praised in a simple but effective manner. Thus when Polokku Priyacelva, the beloved servant of Prthvīsāgara, died, while storming Udayāvara, he was merely described as one endowed with beauty and one who was shunned by the wicked people. He ascended to the world of gods after having struck down the foot-soldiers (of the enemy). Another hero Palipare, son of Nandavilmudi, is likewise sparingly described as one who struck down the enemies, and ascended to the abode of heaven. Two similar memorial stones will be described in the next chapter on the foreign relations. One of them was called kalnatta, or kalnād, evidently according to the usage prevalent in the Karnātaka.

^{1. 379} of 1927-8, op. cit.

^{2. 108} A of 1901, op. cit.

^{3. 101} of 1901, op. cit.

^{4. 103} of 1901, op. cit.

^{5.} Rice, Mys. & Coorg., p. 171; E. C. XII, Mi. 91 of circa 920 p. 111.

(B) THE CAPITALS

From the discussion of the epigraphs given above, it must have been apparent to the reader that the capital of the Ālupas shifted from time to time. This particular part of the narrative deserves some elucidation, as it has an important bearing on the beginnings of a famous law said to have been promulgated by a legendary hero of Tuluva. On Ptolemy's evidence it was asserted that Udayāvara was the capital of the Ālupas in the second century of the Christian era. The fact that civil strife was waged repeatedly round Udayāvara in the seventh and eighth centuries proves that that city continued to be the capital till the end of the eigth century A.D.

The name of the other capital of the Ālupas-Bāra-kūru-does not appear till the beginning of the ninth century A. D. When we first meet with it in the reign of Dattāļpendra Śrīmāra in A.D. 959, it is called Bārahakanyāpura which was not the earlier and original name of the city. For in an earler inscription—an inscribed vīragal found in the Durgā temple at Hosahoļalu near Bārakūru—the name appears in its more archaic and trustworthy variant Bārakanūr. This vīragal, for reasons to be discussed in the next chapter, may be assigned to the ninth century A.D. We may observe here that in the inscription relating to Dattāļpendra

^{1. 181} B of 1901; S. I. I, VII., No. 388, p. 245. It cannot be a man named Bāraka: Bārakana-ūru (the town of Bāraka). B. A. S.

Śrīmara, as will be pointed out while delineating the religious history of the times, the palace at Bārakūru is called Bārahakanyāpurada piriya-aramane-the beloved palace of Bārahakanyāpura. This shows that in the reign of Dattālpendra Śrīmāra, it must have been considered as having been recently constructed in a manner to eclipse in beauty the other palace, obviously that at Udayāvara. It is only in A.D. 1258 that the palace is called hiriya-aramane, thus qualifying its antiquity when compared with the palace at Mangalūru.

On the strength of the inscription in Grantha characters on the pedestal of the Lokeśvara image at Kadri, dated A.D. 967, it may be concluded that Kundavarma, who had proceeded to the vihāra of Kadirikā to consecrate that image, may have done so from the "great city of Mangalāpura" which is not, however, mentioned in the Ālupa records. We shall cite indirect epigraphical evidence which explains why Kundavarmarasa chose Mangalāpura as his capital.³

On the other hand, the Somesvara temple inscriptions of Bankideva Alupendradeva I seem to suggest

^{1. 124} of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 314, p. 165. Piriya is here taken to be the tadbhava of priya. Only in this sense is it historically intelligible in the epigraph under review. In an earlier context we took piriya in the sense of senior-pattada piriyorasi (Cf. E.C. IV. Intr. p. 21)—essentially in the sense of beloved and senior. B. A. S.

^{2. 490} of 1928-9. Bāraha is the Ardhamāgadhi form of dvādasa. It is not improbable that Bārakanūr was called Bārahakanyāpura h the Jainas in the tenth century A.D. B. A.S.

^{3.} Infra, Ch. III, Sections 6 and 7.

that the capital was still at Barahakanyapura. Since all the stone epigraphs relating to the reign of Bhujabala Kavi Alupendradeva have been found in the Udipi and Kundāpūru tālukas, and since none of them mentions Mangalāpura, it may be concluded that till the middle of the twelfth century A.D., the Alupas did not revert to Mangalapura in the south. Our surmise is proved by the Pancalingesvara temple stone epigraph which describes that ruler as governing from his palace at Bārakanyāpura in A.D. 1155. It continued to be the capital till A.D. 1267. King Nägadevarasa in A.p. 1292 also ruled from the same capital. Thus from the ninth century A.D. till the end of the thirteenth century A.D., Baranakanyapura enjoyed the reputation of being the capital of the Alupas, excepting for a short space of a few years when political necessity compelled Kundavarmarasa to shift his capital to Mangalapura.

But in A. D. 1302 under Bankideva Ālupendradeva II, Mangaļāpura is called śrīmatu rājadhānīm.¹ In the Sujēru stone inscription dated A. D. 1305, the king is said to have been seated in his palace called Bhuvanā-śraya at Mangaļāpura. Of this ruler, we may note incidentally, we have a singular fact mentioned in this record. It relates that in order to alleviate the sufferings of the people caused by a drought, Bankideva Ālupendradeva II prayed to the god Timireśvara for rain; and when his prayer was granted, he made a

^{1. 17} of 1901, op. cit.

gift of land to the temple (of the same god) as a token of his gratitude.¹

The capital reverted to Bārahakanyāpura in A. D. 1315 under Soyideva Ālupendradeva.² We lose sight of the capital till A. D. 1384 when Kulaśekharadeva Ālupendradeva III is spoken of as seated on the jewelled throne in Bidire (i. e., Mūdubidre).³ But in the intervening period and even after Kulaśekharadeva Ālupendradeva III's reign, Bārahakanyāpūra continued to be the capital of the Ālupa kingdom, as is evident not only from the trend of events, some of which will be narrated in the next chapter, but also from the fact that most of the Vijayanagara viceroys ruled over the Tuļurājya from Bārakūru, although some governed it from Mangaļāpura as well. But this subject falls outside the purview of the present thesis.

(C) MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS

Of these capitals, Udayāvara, Bārakūru, Mangaļāpura, and Mūḍubidre, we have a few interesting statements concerning the status of the first two. They were nagaras or cities. But between them and Udayāvara there was some difference in regard to corporate existence. One of the earliest Sambhukallu temple stone inscriptions styles Udayāvara (which it

^{1. 338} of 1930-31, op. cit.; Ep. Rept. for 1930-1931, p. 49. The temple of the interesting deity Timiresvara mentioned in this record cannot be located. Probably it was in the neighbourhood of the modern the Kanara High School. But of this I am uncertain. B.A.S.

^{2. 157} of 1901, op. cit.

^{3. 53} A of 1901, op. cit.

calls Odevura) a nagara, but it couples all the citizens who made up the corporation and the temple priests along with it (Odevura nakara sahitta...sakala śri-ālgal Goravar). This presupposes that so early as the sixth century A.D., Udayāvara was already enjoying the advantages of municipal life.

That Udayāvara was indeed a nagara is further proved by one of the Sambhukallu temple stone inscriptions of the reign of Raṇasāgara Ālupendra, which mentions the Udiyapurada nagara-the city of Udayāvara. The constitution of this city is suggested in another record but of the times of Pṛthvīsāgara. Here it is stated that there was a nāyaka or headman over that city. Udayapura Nāyga's (i.e., Nāyaka's) son Singadatta, Kumāra Erega, Raṇavikramanātha, and Sandavarada's (son) Kaṇṇaci were the recipients of certain favours to be enumerated presently.

The Someśvara temple stone inscription of king Dattālpendra Śrīmāra contains an interesting statement which clearly indicates the socio-political solidarity that lay behind the actions of the Tulu people, The grant recorded in that inscription was to be jointly protected by the king, the representatives of district and the municipal corporation—yī dharmmavannu ar(a)su nādu nakhara pālisi-baharu.⁴

^{1. 99} of 1901, op. cit.

^{2. 100} of 1901; S. I. I. VII., No. 284, p. 144.

^{3. 102} of 1901; E. I. IX, p. 21.

^{4. 124} of 1901. See infra Ch. V.

There were other nagaras in the Ālupa kingdom. On the strength of the Greek-Kannada Farce to be cited later on, another important city near Udayāvara was likewise under a nāyaka. This was Malapi (mod. Malpe). The Sambhukallu temple stone inscription of Māramma Ālvarasar referred to above, also speaks of Kōlala (mod. Kolalagiri) as a nagara, and relates that Karasi Nāyga (Nāyaka) was ruling over that city (Kolala nakarakke Karasi Nāygan āld).

The citizens of a nagara were called in the earlier days merely okkalu; and in the twelfth century A.D. they collectively formed the nagara-samūha or municipal corporation. There was a daily supervision of towns. Eighteen cities, including, of course, Udayāvara, were supervised daily (padinentu patṭanamumam nitta vyavast[h]e), as is related in the Sambhukallu temple stone inscription of Raṇasāgara Ālupendra. This duty was under the direct control of the king. We infer this from the statement in the same inscription to the following effect:—That this duty of supervision of the towns and of protecting the country belonged only to the ruler (ī vyavasthe āge ūru rakṣippadu idāṇ Dēvarg allade pēr ārkkōlvaroļara...)²

The cities had representatives who generally acted as a channel of communication between the king and the nagaras. This is seen from the manner in which the rulers granted full or half of the tolls to them. In the

^{1. = 99} of 1901; S. I. I., VII. No. 288, p. 144, op. cit.

^{2. 100} of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 284, p. 144.

earlier days the representatives were identical with the citizens or okkalu. But collectively (in an assembly) they were also known by other names— sāsirvarum or the Thousand, and sometimes mun-nūrvar or the Three Hundred. These terms denoted the composition of the assembly of the citizens. In one of the earliest stone records found in the Sambhukallu temple, which we have assigned to the seventh century A.D., we find that the capital Udayāvara had seventy okkalu: Udilipurada [Udayapurada] nakarada erpatt (o) kkalu. The word sāsirvarum or the Thousand occurring in the same inscription, is to be referred to the general assembly of Sivaļļi(S'ivaļi.....sāsirbbarum).

The king granted tolls to the representatives of the nagaras. In the last quarter of the eighth century A.D., Vijayāditya Māramma confirmed the tolls of the cities of Pombuccha and Udayāvara to Susenavadi's son Svarņagosasi, Muttavarasá's son Aḍiyapa Śeṭṭi, Maṇḍu-ka's son Parasebya, and Senavadi's son Nāgakumāra.' From another record of the same ruler, we learn that the representatives were called okkalu. This stone inscription narrates that Muttavarasa's son Saruvigosasiga, Kaḍal Śeṭṭi's son Madāmma, Vyaśeṭṭi's son Dharmmanayga, Maṇugasattava, Sarvvandu (i. e., Sarvabandhu) and Puleyarma obtained (ī okkalu paḍeduvu) the confirmation of the grant given above, to the cities of Udayapura and Ponvulca (i. e., Pombuccha).'

^{1. 96} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 279, p. 143, line 11.

^{2. 98} of 1901; E. I. IX. pp. 23-4.

^{3. 97} of 1901; E. I. IX. pp, 23-4.

The deśādhīśvaras ("the Lords of the Country") mentioned in one of the undated inscriptions of Bankideva Ālupendradeva I found in the Someśvara temple at Mūdukēri in Bārakuru, were evidently entrusted with some unspecified duty by the kinn in the districts. The effaced lines in connection with them suggest some sort of governmental supervision of their work:—samasta-deśādhīśvara(ra) negaleyum...ja prabhāvamumam-āld-ī-samvyavahāradol-suļivand-vino...¹

The term sāsirvarum or the Thousand occurs again in A.D. 1254 in the times of Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva. The famous town of Kōṭa had an assembly of a Thousand. It was in the presence of this assembly and of Aḷiya Bankideva and others, that the ruler Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva gave a grant of land.³

In another record of the same king dated A.D. 1258 we are informed that when the king was at Bārahakanyāpura, at his feet (śrī-pāda-sannidhāna (dalu), a specified grant was made to the mun-nūrvaru (the Three Hundred) of Niruvāra. Among those present were certain high officials we have seen above, all the ministers, and purohits or priests.³

- 1. 136 of 1901; S. I. I. VII No. 327, p. 178.
- 2. 509 of 1928-9, op. cit.
- 3. 490 of 1928-9. The term mahājana used by the Madras Government Epigraphist in connection with the Three Hundred of Niruvara, is misleading. The mahājanas were no doubt of the same status as the Three Hundred. But the absence of the term mahājana suggests that in Tuluva the people attached a different meaning to the term mun-nūrvaru and sāsirvaru. These were assemblies of representa-

Niruvāra continued to have a representative assembly in A.D. 1277. For in that year while the queen Balla Mahādevī was ruling, all the high and low officials of the government together with the representatives of Niruvāra, made a grant of a rice field to the goddess Bhagavatī of Niruvāra.¹

Even under the Vijayanagara rulers, we may be permitted to say, Niruvāra continued to have a representative assembly. The village assembly, however, was known then by the name jagatta-munnūru (The Three Hundred of the World). We learn this from a stone inscription found in the Mahiśāsuramardini temple at Nīlāvara in the Udipi tāluka. It relates that under the Vijayanagara monarch Deva Rāya (II), Bācaṇa Odeya was placed as viceroy over Bārakururājya, while Sadāśivadeva Aigal served under the latter as the adhikāri of Niruvāra. Provision was made by the Adhikāri Sadāśivadeva Aigal and the jagattamunnūru for daily offerings to the local deity. The inscription is dated Śaka 1330 Sarvajit, Āśviyuja, Ba. 1 Sunday. The cyclic year for Śaka 1329 was Sarvajit,

tives, and not merely individuals such as the mahājanas essentially were. Here we may also note that the term elpatt-okkalu occurs in an inscription dated A. D. 1074. And Rice translates it as seventy families. E. C. VII. Sk. 295, p. 150. But we have already seen that okkalu, especially in Tuluva, meant citizens and not families. In later history okkalu meant tenants. This is still the meaning of the term in Tuluva. B. A. S.

^{1. 491} of 1928-9. But in the Govt. Epigraphist's collection given as 1927-8.

Πl

and the date works out to A. D. 1407 September the 18th Sunday.¹

Other centres which had assemblies were Brahmavūru, Kudikūra, Kundāpūru, Puttige, Mūdubidre, and Kāļāvara. In A.D. 1254 the assembly of Brahmāvūru in the Udipi tāluka was called merely the "Two Hundred' (Brahma-ūradali nūr-irva). A stone inscription found in the Köteśvara temple in the Kundapuru taluka, dated A.D. 1261, relates that the assembly of Kudikūra was called "the Three Hundred" of that place.3 Since the annual imposts were fixed at 140 and 180 samudaya gadyāna for Kundāpūru and Kudikūra respectively in that year by Vira Pandyadeva, in the presence of his relatives, priests, nobles and officials,4 we have to assume that Kundapūru also had an assembly similiar to the one at Kudikūra. We prove our assumption by a stone inscription of a later date found in the Kundeśvara temple at Kundāpūru. It records that Narasimha Odeya was governing the Bārakūrurājya under the orders of Hariappa Dannavaka. The name of the Vijayanagara monarch was Deva Rāya. Narsimha Odeya renewed in the presence of the god Kundeśvara of Kundapuru, and with the consent of the people, a grant of land which had been made by Senabova

^{1. 498} of 1928-9; Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem., V, p. 16; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, p. 55. The cyclic year for Saka 1330 was Sarvadhārin. Swamikannu, ibid, pp. 18-19.

^{2. 485} of 1928-9.

^{3. 870} of 1927.

^{4.} Ep. Rept. for 1926-7, p. 108.

Devanna to the temple but which had lapsed. The record is dated Saka 1347 expired, Viśvāvasu, Caitra, Su. which corresponds to A. D. 1426, March.¹

We infer that Puttige had a similar assembly of representatives from the damaged stone inscription in the Viṣṇumūrti temple assigned to A.D. 1267. Since the epigraph refers to Puttige and to the royal order made in the presence of the ministers and other officers by the king Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva from Bārahakanyāpura, we suppose that there was an assembly at Puttige as well.²

As regards the existence of a corporate assembly in Müdubidre, we have proof of it in a stone inscription dated in A.D. 1281, found in the Guru basti at Mūdubidre. It refers to the regime of the Hoysala prince Vira Ballala during the times of his father Vira Narasimhadeva III. And it records a decision which the officers of the State represented by Hariyappa Dannāvaka, brother-in-law of the Mahāpradhāna Devappa Dannāyaka, Mādadaha, son of Hosavadaha, Adhikāri Deva Aluva, prominent heroes, fifty foreigners (? aivaru horahinavarum), eight heads of the commercial guilds of Mūdubidre called mānisa-settis (Bidireya nagaradalu entu mānisa settikārarum), the citizens (nakararu), and the officials of the eradu-kolu-balis, unanimously (tammol ekastar-āgi) arrived at concerning the preservation of a dharmada-kallu or Edict of Righteousness. Some of the

^{1. 365} of 1927; Swamikannu, Ind. Eph. V. p. 54.

^{2. 500} of 1928-9.

items of this interesting record are unfortunately obsolete. But it is evident from the epigraph that for those who partially despoiled the edict (by using it as a whetstone for their weapons?), the fine would be fiftyone gadyāna at the hands of the king, while those who destroyed it completely were liable to a fine of 500 gadvāna.1

Another record of the same Hoysala ruler but found in Kantavara in the Karkala taluka, enables us to say definitely that heavy fines were imposed on those who violated what appeared to be the joint legislation of the subjects as well as of the State. No doubt this record is dated only in the cyclic year Bahudhanya and is defaced. Nevertheless it contains the following information: - The adhikāris of the Kānteśvara temple at Kantavara, and the citizens of the locality joined together and decreed that for the four households of the grāma (grāmada-nālku grhakke), there was to be a particular custom (? sāvrtti) which is unfortunately not clear in the epigraph. If any one violated this arrangement (yī maryādeyalli-migelāge kondade), he had to

^{1.} Some of the terms that are obsolete are following:—aruvaru Ballaļugaļam...nalvaru eļamegaļum asēsa holāradhavarum...eradu-kolubaliya nādum nakaru tammolekastar-āgi mādida šāsana kramavent-andade yint-î dharmmada kallind-olage ayudhavanu are kittavange arasinge (te) ruva ga 51 ne (ra) kittavange (horage) kadidavange ga 500 kondava ga... arasinge ātana jīva jīvange tale (Balanji)garige halaru makal kaiyali tappidade 1 tale savira honnu arasinge teruvaru kaitappu madid-atanallade ātana...tam...ya mādi bandu kettidalli tappi nadasal āgadu nakaradolagulla (attavattanu)...ttadde Balañja nītinge...13 of 1901: S. I. I. VII. No. 213, pp. 108-9.

pay a fine of 101 gadyāna to the temple, an equal amount to the king, and an equal amount to the grāma.

The corporate nature of the public activities under the Ālupas is further suggested in the Somanātheśvara temple stone inscription of Soyideva Ālupendradeva, which informs us that when he was seated on the golden throne in Bārahakanyāpura in A.D. 1315, Aliya Bankidevarasa, the sāmanta pradhānas (or chief feudatories), (deśa)puruṣas, eraḍu-kōlu-baḷiyabahattara niyōgigaḷu(? officials of: the eraḍu-kōlu-baḷi), and others gave certain grants to Banki Senabova's (man?) Annadāta Heggade.²

(D) RURAL ADMINISTRATION

The most important official of the rural parts was the Headman of the District. It was during Bōygavarma's headmanship of the district (Bōygavarmara nātu mudi-meyu!) that king Pṛthvīsāgara had confirmed the gift of one half of the tolls both on water and on land to the cities of Paṭṭi and Udayapura. The next ruler Vijayāditya Māramma confirmed in a similar manner tolls to the same cities, during Arakella's headmanship of the district.

The minute organization of the villages together with the classification of households is seen best in the traditional accounts of Tuluva called *Grāmapaddhati* which will be examined in a subsequent chapter. The

^{1. 57} A of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 232, p. 118.

^{2. 157} of 1901; S. I. I. ibid, No. 354, p. 212.

^{3. 102} of 1901; E. I. IX, pp. 20-21, op. cit.

^{4. 97} of 1901; E. I. ibid, pp. 23-24.

epigraphs do not enlighten us on the numerous details concerning the organization of the villages.

(E) ARMY ORGANIZATION

From one of the Sambhukallu records we learn that the Ālupas were conversant with battle-arrays-vyūha. A hero called Kāltide, son of Vijana Nāyga, is said to have been eminent in war, a lion in battle (kālega kesari), and to have broken in battle the (circle) array of the enemy's forces (sāhasad ari cakra-vyūhamam odedōn). The infantry under the Ālupas was called patati (padāti). This is gathered from a stone inscription found at Udayāvara of the times of Prthvīsāgara.

A significant phrase occurring in some of the early Ālupa inscriptions, which has its parallel in early Gupta and Karnāṭaka records, enables us to conjecture that there were districts which were ravaged by the soldiers. Thus in the grant issued by Vinayāditya Satyāśraya to Divākaraśarmā, in A. D. 692, the village granted was Sālivoge in the Edevolatviṣaya. It is expressly stated in the epigraph that it was not to be entered into by soldiers, and that it was free from molestation.³

(F) TAXATION

Some details concerning the burden of taxation may be gathered from the inscriptions. One of the

^{1. 94} of 1901; E. I. IX, pp. 17-18.

^{2. 101} of 1901; E. I. ibid, p. 20, op. cit.

^{3.} E. C. VIII Sb. 571, p. 92. Cf. E. C. VII, Sk. 264, p. 143; Fleet, Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, III, p. 98.

inscriptions of Aļuva Rāja Citravāhana I dated A. D. 694 mentions the imposts.¹ We have seen above that imposts and tolls once granted by a ruler were reconfirmed either whole or half, by his successor; and that there were tolls (sunkam) both on water and on land. Details of the dues are to be found in one of the Sambhukallu stone records mentioned above, of the times of king Vijayāditya Māramma. It relates that that ruler confirmed the following dues to the cities of Pombuccha and Udayapura;—per double bag of grain, one and a half basket of grain; per malave (maund?) of cotton, sixteen pala of cotton; per load of arecanuts, three hundred nuts; and per head load of pepper, sixteen pala of pepper.² The customs dues were, therefore, paid in kind.

(G) COINAGE

But the rulers and people were aware of coinage. Thus in one of the inscriptions of Citravāhana I, already cited above, the gift of the village of Sālivoge was made in A.D. 692 by the Western Cālukya monarch Vinayāditya Satyāśraya, at the request of the same Ālupa Mahārāja, with the pouring of water and presentation of coin.³ It may be deduced from this that coinage was known to the Ālupa rulers from the later half of the seventh century A. D. onwards. But from the above account of the customs dues levied in kind, it is

^{1.} E. C. XI, Dg. 66, pp. 62-3, op. cit.

^{. 2. 98} of 1901; E. I. IX, p. 22.

^{3.} E. C. VIII, Sb. 571, p. 92, op. cit.

also apparent, at the same time, that exchange and barter was a feature of the commercial transactions of the times. The confirmation of the gift of one half of the tolls both on land and on water to the cities of Pombuccha and Udayāvara, in the reign of Pṛthvīsāgara, mentioned above, relates evidently to the tolls paid in kind.

In A. D. 1139 the expression $P\bar{a}nda$ gady $\bar{a}na$ m $\bar{u}vattam$ (Thirty $P\bar{a}ndya$ gady $\bar{a}na$)¹ appears in one of the inscriptions of Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra, thereby clearly suggesting that by the first quarter of the twelfth century A.D., Tuluva had adopted the monetary system of the Karnāṭaka, at least so far as the gady $\bar{a}na$ is concerned. But it must be confessed that the precise meaning of the term $P\bar{a}nda$ gady $\bar{a}na$ is not apparant. Whether it was any one of the Ālupa rulers with the second name of $P\bar{a}ndya$ who introduced the Panda gady $\bar{a}na$, or whether it was but a mere imitation of the gady $\bar{a}na$ already existing in the Karnāṭaka is a point which cannot be solved for the present.

A few more details concerning the political life and society under the Alupas, as gathered from their inscriptions, may be mentioned before we pass on to the topic of the foreign relations of the rulers. These refer to their social solidarity.

(H) SOCIAL SOLIDARITY

The precautionary clauses appended to the Sālivoge village grant mentioned above, viz., that that village

^{1. 176} of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 381, p. 236, line 16.

was not to be entered into by soldiers, and that it was to be free from molestation, show beyond doubt that in the seventh century A.D., the State made definite provision for the welfare of Brahman endowments. That these formed a feature of the Alupa administration is proved by another grant also in the reign of the same Ālupa king Citravāhana I. But this time it was not a grant given under the patronage of the Western Cālukya monarch but issued under the Ālupa king's own authority. The clause in the grant to the god Kilgāņeśvara relates that "excepting the attendants of the gods, no one else (is) permitted to enjoy. who enjoy this, and he who causes it to be enjoyed, will remove the burden from the Devedittiver and Saer, and take the produce, to be held as consecrated to the thirty-three (i. e., the gods). Those who go and enter and take, or taking enjoy, are guilty of the five great sins ... ''1

The imprecations at the end of the grants show the communal sense among the people. As in other parts of the Karnātaka, the fear of incurring punishment in the next world brought home to the people a sense of loyalty and respect for royal orders and public endowments. The five great sins (i. e., killing a Brahman, drinking liquors, stealing gold, committing adultery with the wife of the guru or incest with one's mother, and associating with any one guilty of these

^{1.} E. C. VI, Kp. 37, p. 82, op. cit.

crimes)¹ are mentioned in the grant of about A.D. 675, as we have already noted above.² Another grant of the same age but of Āļu-arasar Guṇasāgara, father of Citravāhana I, ends thus:—"Those who ruin that, or whisper for its ruin, or think it in the mind, or advise others to ruin it, are guilty of the five great sins, and incur the punishment of the gods and the punishment of the king. Those thirty-three gods, moreover, will inflict on the destroyers of this ruling, excessive strong smells with excessive heat, and they will wither up along with those who steal silver or gold ornaments."³

The politico-religious nature of the threats held out to the violators of public grants is further shown by other records which declare that the spoliation of public measures was equal to the destruction of one of the most important religious centres of Tuluva. Thus, those who prevented the daily supervision of the eighteen towns mentioned above, were said to have incurred the great sin of having destroyed Brahmapura (Brahmāvūru?) of Sivaļļi in Tuluva (S'ivaļļiya Brahmb [a]puramum arida mahā-pātakanakku).4

The inscriptions of king Pṛthvīsāgara add two more details— one relating to the merits of a horse-sacrifice, and the other to the five great sins of one who destroyed Vāraṇāsi and Śivalli.⁵ An inscription of his succes-

^{1.} Manu, XI, 55.

^{2.} E.C. VI. Kp. 37.

^{3.} Ibid, Kp. 38, p. 82.

^{4. 100} of 1901, op. cit. See infra Ch. V, Section 2 for reference to Avici in this record.

^{5. 102} of 1901; E. I. IX, pp. 20-21.

sor Vijayāditya Māramma contains one more detail concerning the horse-sacrifice: those who confirmed the grant would receive the eight-fold fruits of a horse-sacrifice; while those who destroyed it, would incur the five great sins mentioned above in connection with Vāraṇāsi and Śivaļļi.¹

The reference to the eight-fold fruits of a horse-sacrifice mentioned in two different inscriptions in regard to king Vijayāditya cannot be understood for the present. We are unable to say how a horse-sacrifice came to be associated with an Ālupa ruler. Even in the middle of the twelfth centuary A.D., the fruits of a horse sacrifice are spoken of in one of the inscriptions of Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra. In this record the names of two holy places – Rameśvaram and Kurukṣetra – are added to the two already mentioned, viz., Vāraṇāsi and Śivaḷḷi. And further, those who preserved the grant would receive the fruits of a gift of a thousand cows and of a dinner to a thousand Brahmins at the Ganges, Benares, Rameśvaram and Kurukṣetra.²

When we come to the first quarter of the fourteenth century A.D., we meet with imprecations and threats that suggest the social solidarity of the people under the -Ālupas. An inscription of Bankideva Ālupendradeva dated A.D. 1302, ends with the usual imprecations given

^{1. 98} of 1901; E. I. ibid, p. 22.

^{2. 171} of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 376, pp. 231-2. On the question whether a feudatory can perform an asvamedha sacrifice, pro, read Atul Sur, Indian Culture, I, pp. 114-115; 704-706; J. C. Ghosh, ibid, II, pp. 148-141; contra D. C. Sirkar, ibid, I, pp. 311-12.

above, and with the significant clauses relating to the excommunication from the sthāna (i. e., locality or district) of those who violated the grant, and to their being fined by the king to the extent of fifty-one gadyāṇa-ī dharmavan āvan-obban ahudal-endaḍe Vāraṇāśiyalu sāvira kavileya konda brahmetti Narmadevalu sāvira Brāhmaṇa ghātaka māḍida brahmetti sthānadoļag-āva-obban ahudal endaḍe sthānadindhorage arasige tappu ga (dyāna) 51.1

One of the records of the next ruler Soyideva Ālupendradeva, dated A. D. 1315, ends in the usual Karnāṭaka manner. After mentioning the sins of killing a thousand cows in Vāraṇāsi, the epigraph continues to quote the lines from the Purāṇas, thus:—sva dattām para-dattām vā yo hareta vasundharāṃ ṣaṣṭhi varṣa sahasrāṇi viṣṭāyam jāyate krmiḥ.²

The same sense of united action prevailed in the later times, even when the suzerainty of the Ālupas had passed completely into the hands of the Vijayanagara rulers. The epigraph which gives us details concerning the corporate activities of the people in socioreligious matters is the Kanara High School record of the last prominent Ālupa ruler Kulaśekhara Ālupendradeva IV, which we have elsewhere described in this treatise. It registers a grant to the god Bankeśvara by the king and his nephew Bankidevarasa. The following

^{1. 17} of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 177, p. 75. For similar regulations in later Karnātaka history, read Saletore, S. P. Life, II, pp. 205-209.

^{2. 157} of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 354, p. 212. These verses have been traces to the *Brhaspati-Smrti*, vv. 26-9. Calcutta, San. 1296). Bata Krishna Ghosh, *Indian Historical Quarterly*, III, p. 432.

penalties are mentioned in this royal grant for those who failed to carry out their legitimate duties as well as for the king himself, in case he failed to do his own duty.

If a Brahman stole the property of the god (devara dēvas v[v]ada) from the priest of the locality (vi sthānada pāda mūladavara), he would be declared to be outside the four castes.1 If a Setti committed the same fault, he would be declared to be outside the entire Balanja (dharma). If the Vokkalu Makkalu² committed it, they would be fined 1,000 honnu per head. If any one partially disfigured the sthana3, 500 honnu; and he who did it completely, 100 honnu (extra?). If any one committed a murder, the guilty man was, according to usage, to remain with the enemies for seven days (? kondade kolisi kondava hagegala ēļu dina yiddu hoya maryāde). If the tantri, whose duty it was to perform all the ceremonies in connection with the purificatory bath (avabhrta snāna) of the god, observing all the sankrantis, failed to do his duty, he would be fined ten and a half honnu. He who

^{1.} The meaning is not quite clear: yī dēvara dēvasya [va] da kuditareyoļage yī sthānada pāda-mūladavara mēle yiļidetta kaļadade bettanda...ri dade haņe kodi eļe golu kadi hode end-ivara nālku jātiyoļu Brāhmaņa mādi dade kaņņu kai-jāti sarvasya (va) nālku jātiyim poragu. I am not sure that I have rendered this passage correctly into English. B. A. S.

^{2.} Vokkalu makkalu lit. "sons of the representatives", since we have seen that okkalu was used to denote the representatives of the nagaras in olden times in Tuluva. But nowadasys the word vokkalu means tenant, and Vokkelme is the name given to the Bunts. B. A. S.

^{3.} Sthāna, as we have already remarked elsewhere, denoted the locality or district or place. But in this particular record it seems to have been used for the temple itself. B. A. S.

failed to carry out his appointed functions at the asrama kāla, and he, at the dhāre-kīlsānti kāla, would be fined one and a half honnu respectively. If the original priests (bāda-mūladavaru) failed to bring the daily naivēdya rice, and to report daily about the agreeable series of stories or conversations (kathā-māle), the president (adhyakṣa) (of the original priests?) would be fined five and a half If the permanent senabova failed to keep the accounts, he would be fined ten and a half honnu. If the adhikāri failed to supply oil to the lamp that was to be kept burning always (nanda divigege), he would be fined ten and a half honny. official whose name is effaced) failed to perform the śri bali, or sacred offering of rice, three times (a day), or to cleanse the remains of the offerings to the gold (nirmālya...bandu võlagisadiddode), if the customary pledges were not carried out (? yathā krammadalu adapu nadeyadiddade),—for all these for the daily food (andina grāsakke), the fine would be double.... If the adikāri did not perform the customary usages concerning the ayana, 101 honnu. If the owner of the shops (angadiya adhikāri) did not supply the Brahmans with the daily provisions like rice, oil for Sivarātri, etc.,...he would be fined ten and a half honnu; the same amount was imposed on those who failed to carry out the ceremonies on (four?) successive Amavasvas: and half a honnu for him who neglected to look after the burning of the per-

^{1.} The meaning of this is not clear: māḍakke (ku) ļayi nāḍalu yiradalu, Beļiyintūralu yivarinda bhaļavaļiya koṇḍu bandu neruvudu Amavāsenālku agrava naḍayisadiddaḍe hattuvare daṇḍa.

petual lamp. There is no usage in regard to the building of a palace within the limits of the temple ($d\bar{e}v\bar{a}$ -layadalu aramane kaṭṭuva maryāde yilla). Five and a half honnu were to be imposed (as fine) on a class of temple servants (Bākeneṅges)—who unfortunatly cannot be identified—for non-attendance.¹ If the king failed to investigate and to protect all this, he would incur the sin of having killed a thousand cows and a thousand Brahmans on the banks of the Ganges and at Rāmeśvaram (yint-īva ellavam vicārisi rakṣisadiddaḍe arasinge Gaṅge Rāmesvaradalu sāvira kavileya savira Brāhmaṇara konda pāpa). Great success to uncle (māva) Kulaśekharadeva, who issued this stone charter of righteousness (yint-ī-dharmamam śila-śāsanam geyyd) by the nephews (aliyandiru) Bankideva and Bammadeva.²

^{1.} Kūṭaḍuvu Bākenengeyavaru tāvu endu baha mariyādeyalu bāra-diddade ayiduvare daṇḍa. B. A. S.

^{2. 23} B of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 185, pp. 81-82.

CHAPTER III

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Summary:-1.

The Satavahanas and Tuluva-the rejection of the theory relating to the supposed identity of the Alupas and the Satvatas, the Satavahanas, the Cutus. and the Anus—the conquest of Sahya by Gotamiputra Sātakarnī. 2. Tuluva and the Western Cālukvas-Kīrtivarmā I-Pulikeśin II-Vikramāditva Satvāśrava-Kirtivarmā II-(The Rāstrakūta ascendancy)-Vikramāditva VI-and the Alupas. 3. The Senavars and Tuluva. 4. The Pallavas and the Alupa rulers. The Colas and Tuluva. 6. The Alupas and Pāndyas-Nedunjeliyan's conquests-Sadaiyan Ranadhīra's conquests-Sadaivan's date. 7. The Rāstrakūtas and the Ālupas--the rebellion of Citravāhana II-the date of Citravāhana II and of Rājāditya. 8. The Santaras and Tuluva-the Udayavara viragal—the Bārakūru vīragal—Ranasāgara and the Santaras-foreign foes mentioned in Kundavarmā's inscription of Kadri-Mahāmandaleśvara Lokanātheśvara's place in Tuļuva history,-Bankideva Alupendradeva's relations with the Santarasthe Santara rulers Jagadeva and Pandyadeva in Bara. kūru—the Santara seat at Kervase—how the Alupas came to append the surname Pandya to their names. The Kadambas and the Alupas-the Kadambas of Banavāsi-troubles in the reign of Bhujabala Kulasekhara Alupendra I-Sovideva's general levied tribute from Tuluva-the battle of Birusa and the Kadamba invasion in the reign of Kadamba Mallideva-Kāva Deva's generals attack Sode and Ballayamakki and the battle of Perige. The Kadambas of Goa and Tuluva-Javakeśin I's subjugation of Tuluva. 10. The Kalacuriya, the Kākatīya, and the Hosagunda schemes-Keśi Rāja's conquest of Sanka Male-Kākatīva Rudradeva's alleged subjugation of Tuluva the claims of the Hosagunda rulers to be Promoters of the Tulu Rayas examined. 11. The Hovsalas and Tuluva-the early Hoysalas on friendly terms with the Alupas-causes of enmity between the Alupas and the Hovsalas-Visnuvardhana Deva's conquest of the Tulu kings-the Hoysala general who conquered Tuluva-references to the subjugation of Tuluva by Visnuvardhana Deva in later records-Āļvakheda not broken up by the Hoysalas Boppa Dandādhipati's claims to have subjugated Tuluva—the trouble in A.D. 1194-Vira Ballāla-Deva III and Tuluva-as governor over Bārakūru in A.D. 1281-the I and the II. Battles of Sirisi-the Battle of Candavuru-Vīra Ballāla Deva's visit to Bārakūru in A.D. 1338—his chief crowned queen Kṛṣṇāyi Tāyi a Tuļuva princessthe importance of Barakuru under the Hoysala and Vijavanagara monarchs.

1. THE ŚĀTAVĀHANAS AND TULUVA

Of late an attempt has been made to connect the Ālupas with the Śātavāhanas and the Cutus.¹ It is maintained that the Aryan Śātvatas, or Śātvats of northern India, settled down in Dakṣiṇāpatha, that they were the ancestors of the Śātavāhanas, that one branch of the Śātavāhanas called the Cutus decended into Tuluva, and that the Ālupas were a branch of the Cutus.

To these conjectures we may add the following more substantial reasons for asserting that the Sātavā-hanas and the Ālupas may have had some features of common origin. The Ālupas like the Sātavāhanas belonged to the Lunar race. The Ālupas could lay claims, like the Sātavāhanas and the Sātvats, to a local (Karnā-

^{1.} This is Mr. Govinda Pai's theory. Itihāsada iruļalli Tuļuvanādu. The Pañcakajjāya volume of the 13th Karnātaka Sāhitya Sammēļana, 1927, p. 108 seq.

ṭaka?) origin. The Ālupas and the Śātavāhanas had some admixture of Nāga blood.¹ And, finally, one of the Śātavāhanas, as will be mentioned presently, conquered Sahya which is the name given to that part of the Western Ghats passing through Tuļuva.

But none of these arguments can support the theory that the Alupas were in any way connected with the Śātavāhanas. Firstly, the Ālupa records found in Tuluva and over the Ghats do not mention one peculiarity of the Satavahanas. In the Satavahana records the name of the mother of the king always appears in conjunction with his name. The actual names of the mothers are not given but they are called after the gotra of their family priest.3 Secondly, the Satvats. who are supposed by some to have been the ancestors of the Satavahanas, and the Vrsnis are said to have lived in sanghas or corporations. The Alupas never lived in corporations, although, as we have pointed out, village organization in ancient Tuluva possessed some sort of corporate character. Thirdly, the Satvats and the Vrsnis are described to have been irreverent towards Brahmans.3 This can never be said of the Alupas whose gifts to the Brahmans and temples have been described above.

^{1.} On the Nāga affinity of the Śātavāhanas, read I. A., XIV. pp. 333-334; Rice, Mys. & Coorg., p. 15; Sukthankar, E. I. XIV, pp. 154-155; H. C. Chaudhuri, Pol. Hist. p. 220. (1st ed.); pp. 260-261 (2nd ed.)

^{2.} Rice, ibid p. 16; Cunningham. Stupa of Barhut, p. 129.

^{3.} Chaudhuri, ibid, p. 73 (1st ed.;) 90 (2nd ed.)

The identification of the Ālupas with the Anūpas is likewise untenable. No doubt there is some outward similarity between the word Anūpa and Ālupa (Alūpa), that both the Anūpas and the Ālupas belong to the Lunar dynasty, and that both the Anūpas and the Ālupas are described to have ruled on the western coast of India. But the Anūpas occupied the valley of the Narmadā,¹ while the Ālupas, the fertile region of Tuļuva. Secondly, in no Ālupa record is the word Anūpa met with.² Thirdly, the fact that Sahya and Anūpa are distinctly mentioned in one of the records of Gotamīputra Śātakarnī, as having been ruled by him, clearly proves that Anūpa was never identified with Ālupa.

We may dispense with a third set of assumptions concerning the alleged relationship between the Cutus and the Ālupas. The Cutus were the feudatories of the Āndhras. Their coins have been found in Aparānta (Kanheri), Konkan (Kārwar and Banavāsi), and in Shimoga (Malavaļļi). The titles of their rulers, as determined from their coins, were Rano Cutu Kaḍānamdasa and Rano Mudānamdasa³. Here a forced relation-

- 1. Rapson, Coins of the Andhrabhrtyas, Intr. p. xxxii.
- 2. The Anūpas are also placed on the east coast of India, and near the Pāṇḍyan kingdom. Mahābhārata, Udyoga Parva, XVIII, p. 579 (Roy). See also Nripendra Kumar Datta, Aryanisation of India, pp. 34-35.
- 3. Rapson, ibtd, Intr. pp. lxxxii-lxxxiv; E. C. VII. Intr. p. 4; Sk. 263, 264, p. 142; I.A. XXV, p. 28; FRAS for 1905, p. 304.

ship between the Cutus and the Ālupas is not altogether impossible. The Cutus ruled over Kārwār and Banavāsi. The Ālupas, too, as we have seen, were in some way connected with Banavāsi.

But these arguments are of no avail in establishing the alleged connection between the Cutus and Ālupas. In the first place, the trans-Ghat origin of the Ālupas can no longer be maintained. Secondly, no Cutu coins or inscriptions have been found till now in Tuluva. This justifies our assumption that the Cutus had nothing to do with the Ālupa kingdom. Thirdly, the similarity between the name of one of the Ālupa kings and the name generally prefixed to the Cutus is only accidental. Finally, all the Cutu coins and inscriptions hitherto discovered are in Sanskrit, whereas the Ālupa records are mostly in Kannada. This clearly demonstrates that the Ālupas did not belong to the same stock as that of the Cutus.

Notwithstanding the fact that no identity of origin, language, or interests is possible between the Ālupas on the one hand, and the Sātvats, the Sātavāhanas or Sātakarņis and the Cutus on the other, yet it has to be admitted that the inclusion of the name Sahya among numerous conquests of Pulumāvī Gotamīputra Sātakarņī, in an inscription of queen Gautamī Balásrī, the mother of the ruler, dated in the nineteenth regnal year of the king (circa A.D. 124), 1 proves beyond doubt

^{1.} Rapson, Coins., pp. xxx-xxxv.

that the Sātakarņi arms had extended probably as far as the northern parts of Tuluva. Beyond this nothing can be said for the present concerning the relationship between the Sātakarņi kingdom and Tuluva.

2. TULUVA AND THE WESTERN CĀLUKYAS

On the strength of the above Sātakarṇi record, it may reasonably be supposed that Tuluva did not form an independent political unit in the first half of the second century A.D. And yet we have ventured to suggest in the foregoing pages, on the close similiarity between the word Oloikhoira of Ptolemy and the Ālvakheḍa of inscriptions that in the middle of the second century A.D., Tuluva was known by that name to the western peoples. Whatever may be the difficulty in finding the origin of the Ālupa kingdom, there is no denying the fact that in the fifth and especially in the sixth century A.D., it was a prominent principality.

We have already remarked that one of the earliest historical references to the Ālupa kingdom is in the Mahākūṭa inscription of the Western Cālukya monarch Mangaleśa, dated A.D. 601-2, wherein it is said that Kīrtivarmā I conquered Āļuka.¹ The probable date when Kīrtivarmā I subjugated the Tuļuva kingdom may now be fixed. King Kīrtivarmā I's own lithic records do not enlighten us on this point. We have, therefore, to argue backwards with the aid of the

^{1.} I. A., XIX, pp. 10, 14, 19; seq; E. I. VII. App. A List of Insc. of S. India, No. 5, p. 3.

records of his younger brother and successor Mangaleśa. Here too opinion is divided concerning the date of king Mangaleśa's accession. Fleet places it in Śaka 489 (A.D. 567-8), and Rice, in A.D. 597. If we accept A.D. 567-8 as the earliest date for king Mangaleśa, then, the conquest of Ālupa by king Kīrtivarmā I is to be placed before that date. It is not unlikely that Kīrtivarmā I may have subjugated Ālvakheda in about A.D. 575 when, according to our calculations, Māramma Ālvarasa ruled over the Tuluva kingdom.

King Mangaleśa's attention being directed to the north where the Revatī-dvīpa, the Mātangas, and the Kalacuriya king Buddha, son of Śankaragaṇa, had to be conquered,² the Ālupa ruler seems to have raised the banner of revolt, thus necessitating another Western Cālukya invasion of Āļvakheḍa. This explains why in the Aihole inscription of Pulikeśin II, dated Śaka 556 (A.D. 634-5), the following is narrated in regard to

^{1.} Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dts., p. 21; Mys. & Coorg, p. 63. Rice commits an error when he makes Jayasimha the father only of Rājasimha, Raṇarāga. Ibid; cf. Fleet, ibid, map facing where it is rightly said that Jayasimha I was the father of Buddhavarmā and Raṇarāga. That Rice is wrong in maintaining that A. D. 597 is the first year of Mangaleśa's reign, is clear from No. III Bādāmi Cave inscription dated Saka 500 (A. D. 578-9), of the twelfth year of his reign. This suggests beyond doubt that A. D. 566-7 was the first year of Mangaleśa's reign. See Fleet, I. A. III, p. 305; ibid, VI. p. 363; Pali, Sanskrit, and Old Canarese Inscriptions, No. 39, Dyn. Kan. Dts. p. 21. B. A. S.

^{2.} Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dts., p. 21 Rice asserts that Mangaleśa overcame the Alupas at the same time he subdued the Kalacuriyas. Mys. & Coorg., p. 61. There is no basis for this assertion. B. A. S.

the Ālupa and Ganga rulers:—"Although in former days they had acquired happiness by renouncing the seven sins, the Ganga and Ālupa lords, being subdued by his dignity, were always intoxicated by drinking the nector of close attendance upon him." The statements that the Ganga and the Ālupa lords were merely "subdued by his dignity," and that they were permitted to drink the "nector of close attendance upon him" (Pulikeśin II) clearly suggest that he gave much prominence to the two rulers. By A.D. 634-5, therefore, Tuluva had passed under the Western Cālukyas once again. The Ālupa ruler who, according to our surmise, was probably the contemporary of the great Pulikeśin II Satyāśraya was Kundavarmarasa (I).

The close association of the Ālupa king with Pulikeśin II as described in the above record, explains to some extent the good feeling that continued to exist between the suzerain rulers and the feudatory Ālupas till the days of Vinayāditya Satyāśraya. We have already described how Vinayāditya Satyāśraya gave grants of land at the request of his feudatory the illustrious Mahārāja Citravāhana I, to deserving Brahmans.

^{1.} E. I. VI. p. 10. Mr. M. V. Krishna Rao writes that Pulikeśin II "baffled all his uncle's intrigues, and by the use of energy, counsel and intrepid support from Durivinīta and the Alupas, the traditional allies of the Calukya dynasty, neutralised all the advantage that Mangalesa had gained by the actual possession of power, and succeeded in becoming king." (M. V. Krishna Rao, The Gangas of Talkad, p. 39. Madras, 1936). No source of information can be adduced in support of all these imaginary statements. B. A. S.

The Ālupas seem to have acquiesced in the supremacy of the Western Cālukyas down to the days when the latter were expelled from the Karnāṭaka regions by the Rāṣtrakūṭas. This is inferred from an undated inscription of Kīrtivarmā II. (A.D. 747-A.D. 757), in Sanskrit and Kannaḍa characters, found at Aḍūru in the Kāsaragōḍu tāluka, South Kanara.¹

With the defeat of Kīrtivarmā II by the Rāṣṭrakūṭas, the political hegemony of Karnāṭaka passed into the hands of the latter. And we ought to narrate here in strict chronological order the relations between the Ālupas, the Rāṣṭrakuṭas, and other Karnāṭaka rulers. But in order to bring the history of the Western Cālukyas in Tuļuva to an end, we may be permitted to allude to the relations between the later Western Cālukyas and the Ālupa kings.²

^{1.} Kielhorn, E. I. VII. No. 50, p. 9; Rangachari, Top List. II. 76 A, p. 854.

^{2.} Here we meet with an inscription which can be properly located only with the help of future research. It is dated A. D. 968, and it narrates that when (with usual Calukya titles) "Cattiga Deva was ruling the kingdom of the world, and (with the usual Kadamba titles)...was ruling the Banavāsi 12.000 under the shadow of his sole umbrella, posseesed of the qualities of an appointed great minister, holding the office of Perggade...made in Mangaluru and for the god (on the date specified) at the time of the sun's eclipse, Cattiga Deva was washing the feet of the Brahmans of...gave Doravale to the god..." E,C. VIII. Sb. 465, p. 78. We do not know whether we have to refer the name Mangaluru as given in the above inscription to the Mangaļūru of Tuļuva which, as we have already seen, came into prominence as a provincial capital in the ninth century A.D. Moreover, it cannot be determined who this Cattiga Deva was in the genealogy of the Western Calukyas. The dates of

The next great Western Calukya name we meet with in the history of the foreign relations of the Alupas, is that of Vikramāditva VI, Tribhuvanamalla II, better known as Vikramānka Deva or Vikramārka. An incident took place when this ruler had been placed as governor over Gangavādi Six Thousand, as is related in an inscription dated A.D. 1060. It was in the reign of his father Trailokyamalla. The inscription informs us that on Ballavarasa paying a visit to the Panugal fort, during the days of Kadamba Satyāśraya Deva, who was placed over Kānanūr, the following heroic event happened: Tuluva Candiga said "I will not let (the nail) grow to my finger", and cut off the finger which he had given, at the Permmalu pillar, and climbing up the Bherundesvara pillar, leaped upon the point of a spear and gained the world of gods. At this Ballavarasa and Satyāśrava Deva made suitable endowments to the temple in the Banavase Thousand. We may incidentally observe here that this Bherundesvara pillar had been erected in A.D. 1047 by the Mahāmandaleśvara

the last Western Cālukya king Vikramāditya IV., after whom the Rāṣṭrakūṭas held the suzerainty of the Karnāṭaka, are not available. And the earliest date for Taila II. who retrieved the fortunes of the Western Cālukyas, is A.D. 973-4. Whether Taila himself bore the name Caṭṭiga is not certain. In a damaged inscription found in the Narasimha temple in the premesis of the old Siddheśvara temple at Hāveri, probably of the times of the king Jagadekamalla II, (A.D. 1138-A.D. 1150), an account of the Western Cālukya house is given from Taila II's time. In this genealogical account Taila II's son is called Sattiga (Saṭyāṣraya). Bengeri, Karnataka Historical Review, II, No. 2, p. 8 seq. Was the Sattiga mentioned here the same as the Caṭṭiga of the above record? B. A. S.

Cāmuṇḍa Rāya.¹ What precisely is meant by the above anecdote, we are unable to determine. But in the eleventh century A.D., the Tuluvas were evidently renowned as heroes.

That Vikramāditya Deva VI conquered Tuļuva is proved from the writings of his court poet Bilhaņa who, in his Vikramānkadeva Caritam, informs us thus:—"When he (Vikramānka Deva) resumed his march, the trumpet of his army reminded the kings of Malyaladeśa of his former great deeds. Jayakeśin, the king of Konkan, came to him and brought him presents. The Lord of Ālupa made his submission and received benefits in return. The wives of the king of Keraļa wept when they thought of Vikrama's former deeds".²

The lord of Ālupa mentioned by Bilhaṇa cannot easily be identified. Vikramāditya VI reigned from A.D. 1073-4 till about A.D. 1126-7.2 In the Ālupa chronology, as outlined above, we see two rulers who may be placed as contemporaries of Vikramāditya VI-Udayādityarasa Pāṇḍya Paṭṭiga Deva aud Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva. It is probable that the former is the lord of Ālupa referred to by Bilhaṇa; but it is equally probable that Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva acknowledged the suzerainty of the Western Cālukya monarch. While delineating the history of Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva (A.D.1113-A.D. 1155), we asserted that he seemed to have acknowledged a suzerian in A.D. 1113-4; and that

^{1.} E. C. VII. Sk. 152, p. 109; Sk. 151, pp. 108-9.

^{2.} Bilhana, Vikramānkadeva Caritam, Intr. p. 34, (Bombay, 1875).

his independent reign may be placed between A.D. 1138 and A.D. 1155. The last date of the reign of Vikramāditya VI is A.D. 1126-7; and the earliest date of the independent regime of Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva is A.D. 1138. Therefore, it is probable that the Ālupa ruler continued to acknowledge the suzerainty of the Western Cālukyas in A.D. 1113-4. This was a year when there was trouble in the country, as we shall relate later on; and it is not unreasonable to suppose that the Ālupa king Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva strengthened his position by receiving protection from the Western Cālukyas against his new enemy, the Hoysalas, whose greatest soldier and statesman Viṣṇuvardhana Deva was planning the subjugation of Tuluva.

We may observe here that the memory of the great Vikramāditya VI's conquest of Tuļuva still survives in Tuļuva. In Bārakūru near the old fort behind the Pañcalingeśvara temple is pointed out "the seat of Vikramāditya". The Vikramāditya could not have been Vikramāditya of Ujjain, as the people relate, but only Vikramāditya VI. The name Vikramārka is also met with in Tuļu legends.

The Western Cālukyas continued to hold Tuluva under them till the last quarter of the twelfth century A.D. Of the Western Cālukya monarch Someśvara Deva's general, Kāma Deva, also called Kāva Deva, it is

^{1.} Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dts. pp. 48-51. He seems to have lived till A.D. 1132-3. Ibid, p. 51. Rice places him between A.D. 1076 and A.D. 1126. Mys. & Coorg. p. 73.

said in an inscription dated Śaka 1111 (A.D. 1189-90) that, after subjugating the countries of Male, Tuļu, the Konkanas, and the Western Ghats, he was made the viceroy over Banavase 12,000, the Pānugal 500, and the Puligere or Laksmeśvar 300. The Ālupa ruler who may have been subjugated was perhaps Bhujabala Kulaśekhara Ālupendradeva I.

3. THE SENAVARS AND TULUVA

While describing the events in the reign of the Ālupa ruler Citravāhana I, it was said that one of his inscriptions mentioned Senavarasa and the Dharmakaranika, who were to divide and to give the palace office share (of the produce?) on a plastered floor. The name Senavarasa here deserves comment. These Senavara rulers belonged to the Kacchara-vamsa and had the lion crest and the serpent flag. They hailed from Anūpadeśa. Excepting the name Senavarasa mentioned here, we do not meet with any other name of the rulers of the Kacchara-vamsa in the Ālupa records.

4. THE PALLAVAS AND THE ĀLUPA RULERS

On the floor of the Subrahmanya temple in the village of Mallam, Gudur tāluka, Nellore district, is a record which is dated in the fifteenth regnal year of Nandipotarasa, and which mentions that the men of the district, the villagers, and the heads of the assemblies,

^{1.} Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dts. p. 86.

^{2.} This topic will be dealt with by me in a separate paper. B. A. S.

gave at the order of Calukkiarasar, on the petition of Āluva-arasar, thirty-five kalañju of gold for maintaining the lamps of the god Subrahmanya at Tiruvānbūr situated in the Paiyyūrilangōṭṭam.¹

Nandipottarasar, Caļukkiarasar, and Āļuva-arasar are now to be identified. Two or more Nandipotarasars are known to Pallava history. There is Nandipotarasar, the Pallava ruler who won the victory at Teḷḷāru. The date of this ruler is not known.² Then there is the Pallava king Nandipotavarmā, who was involved in a struggle with the Western Cālukya monarch Vikramāditya II.³ An incident in connection with this Pallava king Nandipotavarmā, who is also called by some Nandivarmā II Pallavamalla, will help us to elucidate the above identification of the Āḷuva-arasar. Scholars are uncertain as to whether Nandipotavarmā was defeated or killed by Vikramāditya II.⁴ Whatever may be the interpreta-

^{1.} Rangachari, Top. list. II, N1. 205-206, p. 1074.

^{2.} Ep. Rept. for 1913, p. 89.

^{3.} Pathak, E. I. IX. pp. 205-6.

^{4.} There are two copper-plate grants which are the source of information for this question—the Vokkelëri plates dated in A.D. 757, and the Kendūru plates issued by Vikramāditya II's son and successor Kīrtivarmā II. Rice, who had discovered the Vokkelēri plates, gives us conflicting opinions concerning Nandipotavarmā. In one connection he asserts that "Nandipotavarman is explicity related to be the name of the Pallava king who was slain in battle in the Udāka province by the Cālukya king Vikramāditya," when all the royal insignia fell into the hands of the conqueror, who made a triumphant entry into Kañci but without plundering it (Mys. Inscr. Intr. pp. lvi, 300). But in another connection Rice writes that Nandipotarasar was merely beaten by the same Western Cālukya monarch at the beginning

tion given to the Vokkelēri and the Kendūru plates concerning the fate that overtook Nandipotavarmā at the hands of Vikramāditva II, it is permissible to identify the Nandipotarasar of the Mallam inscription with the same Nandipotavarmā who was beaten by Vikramāditya II. But Calukiarasar mentioned in the Mallam plates could not have been Vikramāditya II, but he was probably Vijavāditya Satyāśraya. We base our remarks on the following assumptions: -Vikramāditya II's enmity to the Pallavas is well known from the Vokkelēri and the Kenduru plates. It is unlikely, therefore, that he ordered a Pallava ruler whom he hated as one "who had obscured the splendour of former kings of his (Vikramāditya's) lineage", to give a grant to a god. We have to suppose, therefore, that the event mentioned in the Mallam plates took place in the reign of his tather and predecessor Vinayaditya. For Vinayāditya Satyāśraya's reign was peaceful, and

of his reign, i.e, in about A.D. 733. (E. C. X Intr. pp. xvii, seq.) The same is repeated in My. & Coorg. pp. 54, 65.

Fleet, who noted the same Vokkeleri plates, is likewise uncertain as to the fate that befell Nandipotavarman. In one place he writes that Vikramāditya II "slew the Pallava king named Nandipotavarman." (Dyn. Kan. Dts. p. 29, 1st ed., Bombay, 1882). But in another work he says that when Vikramāditya reached Tuṇḍākavisaya, he merely attacked and put to flight the Pallava Nandipotavarmā, who, according to Fleet, was the son of Hiranyavarmā. (Bom. Gaz. I. P. II, p. 327) K. B Pathak, who edited the other document Kendūru plates, opined that Nandipotavarmā was merely put to flight by the Western Cālukya ruler. (E. I. IX. pp. 205-6). The Rev. Henry Heras merely follows Pathak. Studies in Pallava History, pp. 51-54. B. A. S.

^{1.} Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dis. p. 29; Pathak, ibid, pp. 205-6.

he maintained the supremacy acquired by his father and by his grand-father in the south.1

Now, from the records already cited, we know that it was Vijayāditya Satyāśraya's father Vinayāditya Satayāśraya who had twice been requested by the Ālupa king Citravahana I to make grants to worthy Brahmans in the Edevolal-visaya in the Banavase country in A.D. 692 and A. D. 694. The two grants had been made when the royal camp was in Citrasedu in the Toramaravisaya and in Karanjapatra in Haresapura. From these two records it is certain that the Alupa king was prone to make requests to his sovereign the Western Calukya have to suppose that as he had We monarch. petitioned Vinayaditya Satyaśraya to make grants of land to learned Brahmans on two different occasions, he made a third request to Vinayaditya Satyaśraya's son and successor Vijayāditya, who seems to have been on friendly terms with his neighbouring rulers including the Pallava kings.2 If this is allowed, then, the Calukkiarasar mentioned in the Mallam plates would be Vijayāditya Satyāśraya, and the Aluva-arasar, Citravāhana I. In that case, the Mallam inscription must have been inscribed before the defeat of Nandipotavarma at the hands of Vikramaditya II.3 But the occasion which made Citravahana I

2. Ibid, Vijayāditva Satyāśraya was also accustomed to move

^{1.} Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dts. p. 29.

about his Empire. See *ibid*, pp. 28-9.

3. Dubreuil gives three Nandivarmās in his genealogical list of the Pallavas. The dates given to Nandivarma II, who is the one referred to above, viz. A.D. 717-779, do not agree with our surmise. Ancient History of the Deccan, p. 70. (Pondichery, 1920).

go over to Mallam in the Gudur taluka will remain for the present unsolved.

5. THE COLAS AND TULUVA

In the first quarter of the eleventh century A. D., a well known Tamil general seems to have subdued Tuluva. This is gathered from a record of Rāja Rāja Coļa, whose great general Pañcava Mahārāya is credited with the conquests of many countries among which Tuluva and Konkan are mentioned. The inscription which informs us this is dated A. D. 1012. It further relates that having obtained the rank of Mahādaṇḍanāyaka for Bengirimaṇḍala, and Gangamaṇḍala, Pañcava Mahārāya "seized Tuluva and Konkaṇa, pursued after Maleya, pushed aside and passed over Cera, Telugu and Raṭṭiga, as if in sport".

Whether the reference in the above inscription is to an actual invasion of Tuluva by the Colas, or whether it points to a temporary occupation of that district cannot be made out with certainty. In all likelihood it was the latter that was the result of an expedition which, while directed mainly against Karnāṭaka proper, swept over certain parts of Tuluva leaving traces of Cola influence here and there. The following considerations will make it clear that it was a temporary occupation of Tuluva. The fact that no Ālupa name figures in the genealogical account of the Tuluva rulers after Kundavarmarasa II (A.D. 967),

^{1.} E. C. III. Sr. 140, p. 33.

strongly suggests that it was during the times of his successor that the Cola menace passed over Tuluva. But the pointed reference to the Cola danger in the inscription of the next prominent Ālupa king Bankideva Ālupendradeva I proves that it was more than a passing expedition which the Colas had sent to Tuluva, and that it was an Ālupa king who received Tuluva honour.

We have given above the birudas of Bankideva Alupendradeva I. The Someśvara temple stone inscription found in Mūdukēri in Bārakūru, in addition to the birudas, seems to refer to a Cola raid in the following terms:-"...rē mēle (va)nda Colana dandam...Benkonda vultitta Komara danda...' This and the explicit reference in the preceding lines to the fact that he established his authority in the Tulu-visaya (Tulu-visayadol nijājneyam nilisi) proves beyond doubt that Bankideva Alupendra deva I was responsible for the re-establishment of Ālupa authority which had been to some extent shattered by the short-lived Cola occupation of Tuluva. the unique biruda given to him in the above record as well as in another one also found in Barakuru, viz., that he, after having re-established his authority in Tuluva, ruled over all the seven Male and the Seven Kombu (Malevēlum [Kombu]m-nalinale-ēlu-Male pā[]]ipar ellamam 'niia svāmi S'rī-Banki-Alupendra-dēvar), implies that he carried out successfully the Alupa arms far into the Kongudeśa bordering on the Tamil land.

^{1. 136} of 1901; S. I. I. VII, No. 327, p. 176, 11. 7-8.

In this connection it is interesting to observe that the Colas have left some traces of their occupation in Tuluva. For instance, in Barkuru we have a quarter called Colkeri (Cola street). How this street came to be called by that name is inexplicable. Another reference to the Colas is found in the history of Haduhalli or Hādalli or Sangītapura, the capital of the Sāluvas, which was within Tuluva in the olden days. Legend relates that a king of the Colamandalam lost all his children by snake-bite, and coming to the village of Hādalli, his queen was delivered of a son who was immediately bitten by a snake. Just then a Brahman, skilled in the use of mantras for curing snake-bites, forced the snake to suck back the poison, whereupon the child recovered. The Cola king built the temple of Colisvara at Bhattakala to commemorate that event.

The inter-connection between the people of the Tamil country and the Tuluvas during these ages is further borne out by the history of the immigrant classes of the Toṇḍaimaṇḍalam among whom the Tuluva Vellālers figure prominently. These Tuluva Vellālers formed by far the greater body of the settlers who were induced to remain and bring the whole of the Toṇḍaimaṇḍalam province under cultivation. Special previleges were given to the Tuluva Vellālers, e.g., the kāṇiyam, mēris (mirāsi), and other rights, still enjoyed by their descendants. It was Ādoṇḍai Cakra-

^{1.} Burgess-Cousens, Revised List of Ant. Remains, p. 194. Hādaļļi lies 11 miles E. N. E. of Bhatkaļ.

varti who conferred these privileges on them. Of those who held the mirāśi rights down to the other day, the Tuļuva Vellāļers formed the majority.

The legendary notices of the Cola interference in Tuluva affairs are less reliable than the information supplied by the inscriptions. The success of the Tuluva arms under Bankideva Alupendradeva in the Seven Male and the Seven Kombu may have been partly responsible for a recrudescence of Cola aggression in the last quarter of the eleventh century A.D. This is inferred from a record dated A.D. 1086 which relates that Rāja Kesarivarmā Kulottunga Cola Deva's great conquests extended as far as the middle Sayyam (Sahva) where furious rutting elephants were captured.2 More details concerning the subjugation of middle Savvam are not available. The Alupa ruler, who was a contemporary of Kulottunga Cola Deva, according to our estimate, was Udayadityarasa Pandya Pattiga Deva Odeya.

6. THE PĀŅDYAS OF MADURA AND THE ĀLUPAS

The Pāṇḍyan accounts inform us that one Neḍuñj-ceḷiyan or Neḍuñjeḷiyan, styled by some the II of that name, led a victorious expedition into the Cera land, and that he captured the sea port of Mutthu Vellil from a tribe called "Tholuvar", together with the famous emporium of Saliyur in the Gulf of Mannar.³

^{1.} Ellis, cited by Wilson, Mac. Coll., I. pp. 190-191.

^{2.} E.C. IX. Cp. 76, p. 147.

^{3.} Kanakasabhai, The Tamils 1800 Years ago, p. 84.

The name "Tholuvar", is strikingly similar to the name Tuluvar but nothing beyond this can be said concerning the extension of the Pāṇḍya arms into Tuluva. The figure of Neḍuñjeliyan himself is still enveloped in mystery. And nothing definite is known of the activities of the early Pāṇḍyan rulers.

When we come to the ninth century A.D., however, we meet with a few details concerning the Pāṇḍyan kings and Tuluva. The Vēlvikkuḍi plates relate that Arikesari Asamasamam Māravarman conquered the Kerala country several times at the strongly fortified town of Puliyūr. The same grant informs us that his son Śaḍaiyan Kōccaḍaiyan Raṇadhīra, who had the title of Madu-Karnāṭaka, at the great city called Mangalāpura where the peacock danced with the cuckoo near tanks perfumed with opening flowers, attacked and destroyed the Maraṭṭas.²

The age of the Pāṇḍyan ruler Śaḍaiyan Raṇadhīra is unsettled.³ If Arikesarivarman Parānkuśa Māravar-

^{1.} It is surprising that one does not find the name Tholuvar in Mr. Nilkantha Sastri's book *The Pāṇḍyan Kingdom*. On the different Neduñjeliyans, read *ibid*, pp. 21, 26-28, and *ibid*, (n.) 29, 35, 253.

^{2.} Krishna Sastri, E. I. XVII, pp. 291, 298.

^{3.} Mr. Nilakanta Sastri writes thus:—"He must have succeeded his father at the end of the seventh century A.D. or early in the eighth." (The Pandyan Kingdom, p. 55). The date given to this ruler as well as to his father Arikesarivarman Parānkuśa, who "must have come to the throne some time after the middle of the seventh century "670-710 A.D." (ibid, p. 51)—these statements are purely imaginary. First, we shall take the argument which Mr. Sastri utilizes to arrive at the date A.D. 670-710 for Arikesarivarman Parānkuśa. This is based on the date given to Parānkuśa's father Sendan or Jayantavarman. "The

man is to be placed in A.D. 783, his son Sadaiyan Kōcc-adaiyan Raṇadhīra may reasonably be assigned to A.D. 800. What precisely is meant by the peacocks which danced with the cuckoos cannot be made out. Probably there is some reference here to the emblems and

rule of Sendan or Jayantavarman who succeeded his father Mārvavarman may be taken to have extended over, say, A.D. 654-670". Ibid, p. 50. Thus Mr. Sastri starts with a guess and ends in a conjecture! The erroneous nature of Mr. Sastri's conclusion will be evident when we determine the date for Arikesarivarman Parānkuśa Māravarman. About this ruler Mr. Sastri writes thus:—"There is good reason for identifying this Arikesari Parānkuśa Māravarman with the celebrated Kūn Pāṇḍya of legend, and the contemporary of the Saiva saint Tirugnānasambandar". Ibid, p. 53. He bases his conjectures on the Periyapurāṇam. "These indications derived from the stories handed down in the Periyapurāṇam seem to confirm the system of chronology we have adopted for the Pāṇḍyas of this period." Ibid, p. 54.

But the *Periyapurānam* is not the only authority on which one may base one's remarks. There are the Jaina and the Kannada writers to be consulted before we can postulate any such theory like the one maintained by Mr. Sastri. Even if we accept Mr. Sastri's conjecture that Arikesarivarman Parānkuśa was no other than king Kūn Pāṇḍya of the legend, we arrive at the following:—Kūn Pāṇḍya was one of the names of the Pāṇḍyan ruler called Kubja Pāṇḍya, Kundumara, or Dīrghamara, or Sundara Pāṇḍya. This ruler was the husband of Queen Mangāyī Akkā of Madhura, the daughter of the Cola king Inu-Kulottunga Cola. (Here we may by the way note that Mr. Sastri admits this:—"...there is nothing improbable in the story that the Pāṇḍyan queen of this period was a Cola princess." *Ibid*, p. 54). Kūn Pāṇḍya was called Sundara Pāṇḍya on his being healed and converted from Jainism into Saivism.

Now, Pille Nāyanār was a Siva-vipra (i.e., an Ārādhya Brahman) of Srikalinagari. He had converted king Inu-Kulottunga Cola into Saivism, and had won victories over the Jainas and the Buddhists at Tirumarkkada and Tiruvalava. Then under the name of Jñanasa-mandhar—the Tirujñānasamandhar of the Tamil texts—he had gone to the court of Queen Mangāyī Akkā of Madhura where, as related above, he converted Kūn Pāndya into Saivism from Jainism. The

flags of the Ālupa rulers about which no direct evidence is forthcoming in history. The late Mr. Krishna Sastri rightly identified the Mangalāpura of the above inscription with Mangalore in Tuluva.¹

But the word Marattas deserves to be explained. This could not have referred to the Marathas of later

18,000 Jainas whom he had defeated were impaled on red hot śūlas which Kulacchāri, the Queen Mangāyī Akkā's Śaiva guardian, had prepared. Piḷḷe Nāyanār or Jñānasambandhar was, we may incidentally note, the teacher of Vāgīśa or Tiruvāgīśa. These details are gathered from the Kannada works Cenna Basava Purāṇa (55, 33, 34), the Basava Purāṇa (50, 25, 4; 11, 15, 16; 9, 48), the Praudha Rāya Carite (Ch. 18), and Rājaśekharavilāsa, (I, 77, 78-88), which range from A.D. 1369 till A.D. 1655. (Karnāṭaka Kavi Carite, I. p. 424; II. pp. 305, 307, 442). It may be objected that their evidence is, therefore, not of much use in determining the date of Kūn Pāṇḍya. But it may be observed here that these Kannada authors faithfully preserved the traditions current in their times, and that, therefore, some reliance may be placed on their statements.

Having learnt something about Kūn Pāṇḍya and the great saint J̄nānasambandhar from the Kannaḍa sources, we may now turn our attention to the Jaina writers for determining the date of that ruler. Kūn Pāṇḍya was the contemporary of Jinasenācārya, the author of Bṛhadharivamśa of Saka 705. (Mys. Archl. Rept. for 1925, p. 102). Therefore, Kūn Pāṇḍya may definitely be placed in A.D. 783.

Mr. Sastri says that Arikesarivarman Parānkuśa Māravarman was the same as the "celebreted Kūn Pāndya of legend, and the contemporary of the Saiva saint Tirugnānasambandhar." The Pāndya Kingdom p. 53, op. cit. If that is, so, then, on Mr. Sastri's own estimate we may place Arikesarivarman Māravarman in A.D. 783. Therefore, the whole edifice which Mr. Sastri has built concerning what he calls "the Age of the First Empire" collapses. We thus find that Mr. Venkayya's assertion (Ep. Rept. for 1907, para. 20) that Arikesari Parānkuśa may be assigned to the eighth century A.D.. is more correct. On p. 51 n. (1). Mr. Sastri has vainly endeavoured to demolish Venkayya's arguments. B. A. S.

1. E. I. XVII. p. 298. Mr. Nilakanta Sastri follows him. Pandyan Kingdom, p. 55.

history. The identification of the Marattas can only be solved when we examine the Tuluva-Rastrakūta relations. The part played by the Rastrakūtas will presently be explained. Here we may note that in the reign of Prabhūtavārsa Govida III, the Rāstrakūta king, an Alupa feudatory was punished with the forfeiture of a part of his territory. The reason is obvious: on the failure of the Alupa ruler (Citravahana II) to carry out the imperial order against Sadaiyan Ranadhīra, the Rāstrakūta viceroy, no doubt at the instance of the emperor, became angry and sent a general against the Alupa king. What exactly were the reasons which made the Alupa king give lukewarm support to the Rāṣṭrakūṭa cause, we are unable to determine. It may be that the hostility of the Rastrakutas to the Western Calukyas between whom and the Alupas there had been such good relations for centuries, had something to do with failure of the Alupa ruler to carry our the imperial commands of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa monarch. Whatever that may be, Sadaiyan Koccadaiyan Ranadhīra, who had attacked and destroyed the Marattas, i. e. the Maha-Rāṣṭrakūtas, in the city of Mangaļāpura, seems to have secured the title of Madu-Karnāṭaka for having defeated an essentially Karnātaka army in a town that was under a Karnātaka dynasty.

We thus find that the age we have assigned for Sadaiyan Kōccadaiyan Raṇadhīra agrees perfectly well with the date of the Ālupa king Citravāhana II-viz., A.D. circa 800. Hence the episode of Sadaiyan is valu-

able in bringing order out of what was nothing but chaos in the history of the Pāṇḍyan rulers Arikesari Parānkuśa Māravarman and his son Śaḍaiyan. The following synchronism may here be noted:—

Pāṇḍya	Ālupa	Rāṣṭrakūṭa
Arikesari Parānkuśa Māravarman (A.D. 783)	Vijayāditya (A.D. 750-770)	Dhruva Nirū- pama I (A.D. 750)
Śaḍaiyan Kōccaḍaiyan Raṇadhīra (circa A.D. 794-800)	Citravāhana II (circa A.D. 800)	Govinda III Prabhūtavarsa (A.D. 794-814)

Moreover, the Vēļvikkudi grant is also important in determining the date when Mangaļāpura became a provincial capital. We remarked above that Kundavarmarasa II had the image of god Lokeśvara installed at Kadirikā in A.D. 967. The Vēļvikkudi plates enable us to assert that Mangaļāpura was a great city in A.D. 800. It must have been selected as the provincial capital in the days of Kundavarmarasa II for political reasons enumerated elsewhere in this treatise.

7. THE RĀṢṬRAKŪṬAS AND THE ĀLUPAS

The age of Tamil aggrandizement in Tuluva was eventful so far as the history of the Ālupas was concerned. This brings us to the elucidation of the happenings in A.D. 800, concerning the Ālupa ruler Citravāhana II. A few words about the Rāṣṭrakūṭas are

necessary in order to understand better the spirited resistance made by the Ālupa ruler. In the eighth century A.D. the Rāṣṭrakūṭas led by Dhruva Nirūpama, father of Prabhūtavarṣa Govinda III, had caused consternation in ihe Karnāṭaka kingdom by imprisoning the Ganga king Śivamāra, and by extending the Raṣṭra-kūṭa arms into the Pallava, Gauḍa and Mārwār territories.¹ Dhruva Nirūpama had but carried out the imperialistic designs of his father Kṛṣṇa I Kannara Akāla-vāṛṣa, who had broken the power of Western Cālukyas.² We have seen that the Ālupas had been the feudatories of the Western Cālukyas for nearly two centuries. It is but natural that the Ālupas should have resisted the claims of the Rāṣṭrakūṭas when the latter now proclaimed their suzerainty over the Cālukya empire.

This alone explains the following stone epigraph, found in the basti Hittalu, Māvaļigrāma, Sohrab taluka, Mysore State, which pictures Citravāhana II as a rebel. The incription is not dated. It relates that when Prabhūtavarṣa Govindarasa was ruling the whole world bounded by the four oceans under the shadow of his sole white umbrella, and Rājāditya was ruling the Banavase country as far as the ocean, Citravāhana ruling the Āļuvakheḍa Six Thousand, not listening to orders, Kolli Pallava Noļamba being angry, at the bidding of Noļambarāditya, that Kākarāsa arose, and throwing the

^{1.} Rice, Mys. & Coorg., pp. 68-9. Read also Altekar. The Rastrakutas and their Times, p. 54.

^{2.} Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dts., p. 33.

Perugguñji fort into confusion, the brave warriors of both the armies eagerly came out, and "bow closing with bow, horse with horse, a most exciting battle arose. Seeing Citravāhana on the right hand fighting as if overpowered, he ordered Kulamudda (called in another record rājapuli [royal tiger], and son of Āridara Poleyamma of Māyile), saying 'you go and fight on this hand', who, accepting it as a favour, closed in, fought, brought down the enemy's pride, put them to headlong flight, and defeated that hand. He himself and many ohers shooting arrows and approching close, were caught up as in a cage of arrows and fell, as Bhīsma fell, without touching the ground."1

The identification of the Rājāditya mentioned above enables us to fix the date of Citravāhana II who was his contemporary, and incidentally to substantiate our surmise concerning the date assigned to the Pāṇḍyan king Śaḍaiyan Kōccaḍaiyan Raṇadhīra. Rājāditya Rāja Parmeśvara is said to have ruled over Banavase Twelve Thousand under king Jagatunga. This record is not dated. But we know from other records that Jagatunga was the name of Prabhūtavarṣa Govinda III

^{1.} E. C. VIII. Sb. 10, pp. 2-3, text, p. 5; Sb. 6, p. 2. Dr. Altekar distorts Āļvakheda into Alurkheda of which he makes Citravāhana "Commissioner"! And he assigns this record to A.D. 797. Rastrakutas and their Times, p. 174. Concerning Kulamudda we may note that both Āridara Poleyamma and after him Kulamudda are mentioned under Ereyammarasa who was placed over the Banavasenād in circa A.D. 800 in the reign of Govinda III. E. C. VIII. Sb. 9, op. cit. B. A. S.

^{2.} E.C. VIII. Sb. 22, p. 5.

whose earliest date is A.D. 794.1 We know too from the Manne plates dated A.D.802 that in the early years of Govinda III's reign, he was too much engrossed, first, in quelling a confederacy of twelve kings headed by Stambha or Kambha or Śauca Kambha Deva, Ranāvaloka, and then in interfering in the affairs of the Gangas, and, finally, in driving away the Guijara, in receiving the submission of Marasrava in the Vindhyas, in encamping on the Tungabhadra on the island of Ramesvaratirtha where the Pallava king paid up in full the tribute that was in arrears, and in witnessing there sports with boars.2 It cannot be that Govinda III thought of punishing the Alupa ruler when his mind was thus distracted by more urgent needs. Hence during the first five or six years of his reign, it is probable that neither Govinda III nor his viceroy Rājāditva placed over Banavase Twelve Thousand turned his attention to the affairs in the Alupa kingdom. We may, therefore, assign the inscription relating to the viceroyalty of Rājāditya over that province to A.D. 800. The statements that he was ruling "the Banavase country as far as the ocean2, and that Citravahana, who is said to have ruled over the Alvakheda Six Thousand, and who "not listening to orders", headed a rebellion, clearly prove the subordinate position of the latter. Rice is, therefore, justified in assigning this inscription to а.р. 800.

^{1.} Rice, Mys. & Coorg., p. 67.

^{2.} Ibid, pp. 69-70.

But Rice supposes that Rājādityarasa was the son of Kolli Pallava Nolamba, the Kollivarasa of the Gānjam plates.1 And he also asserts that Nolambarādityarasa was advised by his father Kolli Pallava (in the exercise of his paternal authority) to attack Citravahana, and to reduce him to obedience.2 But this is a gratuitous assumption, since there is nothing in the inscription to show that Kolli Pallava Nolamba advised his son Rājāditva to punish Citravāhana. If any supposition can be hazarded at all, it is the one we have ventured to give above concerning the attack on Mangalapura by the Pandyan ruler Sadaiyan Koccadaivan Ranadhira, and the failure on the part of the Alupa king Citravahana II to carry out the imperial orders at the bidding of the Banavase viceroy Rajaditva.3

^{1.} E.C. IV. Intr. p. 10. But see E.C. III. Intr. p. 3 where Rice makes Kolli Pallava Nolambārāditya himself!

^{2.} E. C. IV. ibid.

^{3.} We may mention here a copper plate grant found at Kadaba. It was issued from Mayūrakhandi and is dated Monday the 24th A.D. 812; and it refers to the grant made by the same Rāṣtrakūṭa monarch Govinda III, at the request of a Ganga chief Cāgiraja to a Jaina sage Arakīrti, disciple of Vijayakīrti. The only point that may be noted so far as the history of Tuluva is concerned, is the fact that the above grant was found at Kadaba which was one of the four famous centres of Brahmanism in Tuluva, and which then must have formed a part of Tuluva. Now it is in the Tumkur district of the Mysore State. I. A. XII. pp. 11, 13; XXIV. p. 9; E. I. IV. pp. 332-40; Kielhorn, List. No. 66, p. 11; Rangachari, Top. List. II. No. 300, p. 876. There is also a placed called Kadaba in the Puttūr tāluka, South Kanara. B. A. S.

8. THE ŚĀNTARAS AND TUĻUVA

The following viragal was found in Udayāvara: svasti Sri S'āntararaāļu Medumānan illi eridu vīldān 1. It merely relates that Medumānan, the āļu or servant (i.e., soldier) of Sāntara, having fought fell in Udayāvara. This hero memorial stone has to be explained from the point of view of Ālupa history.

The vīragal in question cannot be dated to the end of the seventh century A.D., since it does not contain the earliest variant of the name Sāntara-Cānta². But it has to be referred to about the ninth century A.D. when Jinadatta Rāya founded the Sāntara kingdom. The following arguments will make our point clear:—

With Jīnadatta Rāya the Cāntas or the Śāntaras, who were of the Ugra-vamśa, worshippers of the goddess Padmāvatī, boon lords of northern Madhura, appear for the first time in the Nagar tāluka with Paṭṭi Pombuccha as their capital 3. Now, we know that till the end of eighth century A. D., that city was under the Ālupas. The fact that Jīnadatta Rāya made it his capital suggests that he wrested it from the Ālupas somewhere in the ninth century A. D. 4. Not content with making Paṭṭi Pombuccha their own, the Śāntaras made an attack on the capital of Ālvakheda itself-Udayāvara-thereby showing the vigour which characterized the Śāntaras and the utter helplessness of the Ālupas. This supposition of ours is proved by the

^{1. 108} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 294, p. 146.

^{2-4.} Rice, Mys. & Coorg., p. 138.

non-appearance of the name Patti Pombuccha-henceforth lost to the Ālupas—in the Ālupa records after the ninth century A.D. It is not surprising that Patti Pombuccha was lost to the Ālupas: the Tamil menace from the south, the Rāṣṭrakūṭa trouble in the north, and the aggressive designs of Jīnadatta Rāya from over the Ghats—all these explain the blank in the history of the Ālupas after Citravāhana II for about 120 years.¹

To this period of confusion (A. D. 800-A. D. 920) may be assigned another undated vīragal which was found in the Durgā temple at Hosahoļalu near Bāra-kūru. It narrates the following:—svasti S'rī-Bārakanū-ralu (Tu) yyana (ta) mmaṇana kāļagaļ (du) tṭa (kāram) nūṅki sattaṃ Ariya (cu)-(Āycevu) ṇḍana (va) ra maidunaṅga Āriya Cāvuṇḍa maidunaṅgaļu Mallaṇa duṭṭa-kāra kal-naṭṭu vageyu.² The vīragal informs us that in the fight with wicked people (duṭṭa kāram), (Tu) yya's brother (Mallaṇa?) fell. The worthy (Āriya-Ārya) Ayceuṇḍa's brother-in-law the worthy Cāvuṇḍa erected the vīragal, and gave war-relief (kal-naṭṭu) to the relatives of the deceased.³

^{1.} The aggressive nature of the Santara attacks is seen in many records of the times. Thus, an inscription dated about A.D. 930 or earlier, relates that under Bira Nolamba of the Pallava-kula, "rising up against Santara", Battamarasa died fighting. E.C. X. Sp. 64, p. 281. The date given to Jinadatta Rāya—circa 8th century A.D.—by Rice (E.C. VIII. p. 8) has, therefore, to be abandoned. B. A. S.

^{2. 181} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 388, p. 245.

^{3.} On kal-nattu, see E. C. XII. Mi. 71, p. 111. This is dated circa A.D. 920.

A. K. 15

The following may be noted in regard to the above $v\bar{r}ragal$:—Bārakūru is called merely $S'r\bar{r}$ -Bārakanūr which is undoubtedly the oldest and the most correct rendering of the name, the variant Bārahakanyāpura being a later invention. The name Bārahakanyāpura, as we have already remarked, appears only in the reign of king Dattālpendra (A.D. 959). Hence this $v\bar{r}ragal$ has to be assigned to an earlier age.

Evidence from the writings of Arab travellers and from epigraphs confirms our assertion that Barakanur was the earliest and the most trustworthy form of the name. Rashid-ud-Din, who completed his work Jami-ut-Tawārīk in A. D. 1310, notices the following important ports of Tuluva:-"Of the cities of the shore the first is Sindabūr, then Fakanūr, then the country of Manjarūr...". Although Rashīd-ud-Dīn wrote in the first quarter of the fourteenth century A. D., yet his book may be considered for all practical purposes, as a work which presents "a picture of the Mussulman knowledge of India at the end of the 10th century".2 Rashīd-ud-Dīn's Fakanūr is a correct rendering of the Barakanur of the above viragal. The testimony of this Arab traveller may be taken to prove that to the foreigners Barakuru was always known by its real name Barakanur, and not by its later variant Bārahakanyāpura.

^{1.} Elliot-Dawson, History of India as told by her own Historians, I. p. 68; $\mathcal{J}RAS$ for 1870, pp. 342-345.

^{2.} Elliot-Dawson, ibid, p. 42.

Three inscriptions dated A. D. 1129, A. D. 1140, and a third one dated about A. D. 1141, to be cited in a later context in connection with the conquest of Tuluva by the great Hoysala king Viṣṇuvardhana Deva, give uniformly the name of the city as Bārakanūr. This proves beyond doubt that in the first half of the twelfth century, and earlier perhaps, Bārakanūr was the popular name of the city.

The wicked people $(du!ta-k\bar{a}ram)$ have now to be identified. They were no other than the Santaras whose $\bar{a}lu$ had already caused some commotion, as narrated above.

In this connection we may note that one of the birudas of Kundavarmarasa, as given in the inscription on the pedestal of the Lokeśvara image at Kadirikā dated A.D. 967, already cited in the earlier pages, is the following:—dattām bhuvā (vam) nirākṛtya balāt viśvāsa-ghātinam rājyam sva-bhu(ja)vīryeṇa gṛhītam yena māninā.¹. The treacherous enemy referred to in the above passage could have been only the Śāntaras, who may have taken shelter in the Ālupa kingdom under pretexts not known to us. Since they had caused trouble both in Udayāvara and Bārakūru, it is possible that the Ālupa ruler shifted his capital to Mangaļūru which was far removed from the Śāntara attack.

If the above considerations are admitted, then, the viragal under review may be assigned to the middle of the ninth century A.D.

^{1. 27} B of 1901, op. cit.

The importance of the above two viragals and the Kadirikā record is, therefore, not only that one of them gives us the true name of a provincial capital of the Ālupas, but that they prove that in the ninth century A.D., the Sāntaras had extended their influence to Udayāvara, Bārakūru, and perhaps even to Mangalūru as well.

Santaras having thus proved dangerous, a remedy had to be discovered by which the Alupas could put an end to their depredations. This they found in marriage alliances. The dynastic connection between the Alupas and the Santaras is best seen in reference to the two Alupa rulers Rananjaya and Bankideva. From the genealogical list of the Santaras as given by Rice we take the following:-One of the Santara kings who created the Santalige Thousand into a separate kingdom was Hiranyagarbha Vikrama Santara, Kandukācārya, Dānavinoda. He is placed after many sons who had ruled after Ranakeśin. Hiranyagarbha married Laksmi Devi, daughter of the Banavasi king Kāma Deva. Their son was Cāgi Śāntara who married the daughter of Alva Rananjava, called Enjala Devī. Long after Cāgi Śāntara had ruled over the Śān-Thousand, there came Ammana Deva who talige married Hōcala (Hoysala) Devī. By her he had two children—a daughter named Bīrabbarasi, and a son called Tailpa Deva. Bīrabbarasi was given in marriage to Banki Alva; Tailapa Deva married Banki Alva's younger sister called Mankabbarasi. Tailapa's second

queen was Kaleyabbarasi, daughter of the Ganga king Pāleya Deva. By her Tailapa Deva had three childrenthe eldest Bīra Deva, also called Biruga and Vīra Śāntara; the second Śingi Deva; and the third named Barmma Deva. Biruga Vīra Śāntara married three wives—the first named Bijjala Devī, daughter of the Nolamba Narasinga Deva, the second Acala (or Būcala) Devī, daughter of the king Alva, and the third known as Vīra Mahādevī, younger sister of Caṭṭala Devi, and daughter of Rakkasa Ganga.¹

We are concerned here with the identification of Āļva Raṇañjaya, Banki Āļva, and the Āļva king whose daughter Acala (Būcala) Devī was given in marriage to Biruga Vīra Sāntara (Aļvara magaļ Acala Dēviyaru...). The date of the last named Sāntara ruler may be settled thus:—we have nine inscriptions of a Trailokyamalla Vīra Sāntara Deva ranging from A.D. 1060 to A.D. 1070.2 He is to be identified with Biruga Vīra Sāntara. His first two sons were called Bhujabala and Nanni. Now a Bhujabala occurs in a record dated A.D. 1066, and a Nanni in A.D. 1077.3 An inscription of about A.D. 1070 records the death of Vīra Sāntara.4 Another inscription mentions the father of Bhujabala with the titles Bīra Deva, king Biruga.5

^{1.} Rice, E. C. VIII. Intr. p. 6. seq. See also Nr. 35, Tl. 192, Sa. 159, of A.D. 1077, 1103, and 1159 respectively, pp. 122-3, 133-138, 203.

^{2.} E. C. VII. Sk. 63, p. 54. See also *ibid* Sk. 46, Sk. 62, pp. 50, 53-4; E. C. VIII. Nr. 47, 48, 63, 70, 71, pp. 150-151, 155, 159.

^{3.} E. C. VIII. Nr. 59, p. 154; Nr. 35, p. 133.

^{4.} Ibid, VII. Sk. 62, p. 53.

^{5.} Ibid, VIII. Nr. 38, p. 143.

One of the queens of Biruga Vīra Śāntara was Bijjala Devī, the daughter of Nolamba Narasinga Deva. The latter is mentioned as ruling over Kadambalige Thousand in A.D. 1051, and over the Kogali Five Hundred together with the Kadambalige Thousand in A.D. 1054.¹ These records clearly prove that Narasinga Deva and Biruga Vīra Śāntara were contemporaries.

Birgua Vīra Sāntara's date may also be determined from the point of view of his third queen Vīra Mahādevi She is called the younger sister of Caṭṭaṭa Devī, daughter of Rakkasa Gaṅga. Here the epithet daughter should be understood as grand daughter. The Gaṅga king Śrīpuruṣa slew a Kāḍuveṭṭi in battle in about A.D. 750, and Rakkasa Ganga's grand daughter Caṭṭaṭa Devī was married to a Kāḍuveṭṭi in about A.D. 1050 when she obtained the title of Kāḍava Mahādevī. The Caṭṭaṭa Devī mentioned in the above grant could only have been the same Caṭṭaṭa Devī spoken of in the Śāntara genealogy. This again conclusively proves that the date assigned to Biruga Vīra Śāntara—A.D. 1060— is correct.

On the strength of the above deductions we may place queen Acala Devi's father Alva ten years before

^{1.} E. C. XI. Hk. 65, p. 123; Jl. 10, p. 85.

^{2.} Ibid, X. Intr. p. xxi; Ibid, VIII. Nr. 35, p. 133, seq. Rakkasa Ganga's date is A.D. 984. A record of his reign relates that Puliga ruled over the Nolambavādi Thirty-two Thousand, under Rakkasa Ganga, in circa A.D. 985. (E. C. X. Sp. 58, p. 280). This damaged record proves that the Nolambavādi was under Rakkasa Ganga. The enmity of the Sāntaras and the Nolambas may have been responsible for the dynastic alliance between the former and the Gangas who were the enemies of the Nolambas. Read Rice, Mys. & Coorg., pp. 56, 57, 139. B. A. S.

the first date of Biruga Vīra Śāntara, viz., in A.D. 1050. The Āļva was no other than Banki Āļva who married Bīrabbarasi, and who gave his younger sister Mankabbarasi in marriage to his own brother-in-law Tailapa Deva. According to our calculations, he could have been no other than Bankideva Ālupendradeva I. We may note here that Bīrabbarasi became the chief queen of Bankideva Ālupendradeva:— ā Bīraladevī Bankiyāļvange mahā-deviyādaļ.

A difficulty arises here: if Āļva, the father of Acala Devī, was the same as Banki Āļva, the brother of Mankabbarasi, how can the marriage of Biruga Vīra Sāntara with the same Ālupa ruler's daughter be explained? Such marriages are permissible by what is known as sōdarike, viz., the marriage of one's own daughter with one's own nephew.

We may mention here one detail found in the Somesvara temple inscription of Bankideva Ālupendradeva, cited already in the previous pages. This defaced and undated inscription contains the following:— "...tyāga-(da) kaṇiyum-āgi Sāntali sāyiramam eka c(ch)attra-cchāyayim rājyam-geyyuttam Konkaṇa-bhayankaram Malepa(kū).." What precisely is meant by kaṇiyum-āgi and by the word Malepa, and how far the assertion that the Sāntalige Thousand was under the sole umbrella of Bankideva Ālupendradeva, we are unable to say. But it is probable that the Ālupas under Bankideva Ālupendradeva

^{1. 136} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 327, p. 178.

^{2.} Supra Ch. III. Sec. 5.

were becoming powerful not only to ward off the aggressive designs of the Colas,, but also to cast over the Sāntalige Thousand their sway for some time. Indeed, the birudas of Bankideva Ālupendradeva given in an earlier connection, strengthen the belief that that ruler had ushered in a new era in the history of the Ālupas. The Sāntara-Ālupa alliance was meant perhaps to guard the interests of both against the Hoysalas, who had by this time assumed the role of imperialists. Only in this way can we explain the word Malepa occurring in the above inscription.

The date of Bankideva Ālupendradeva and of his contemporaries Biruga Vīra Šāntara and Narasinga Deva being thus settled, we may now proceed to work backwards in order to reach the date of Āļva Raṇañjaya whose daughter Eñjala Devī was given in marriage to Cāgi Śāntara (ātangam Āļvara [Ra] ṇañjayana magaļ Eñjala Deviyaram). Between Cāgi Śāntara and Biruga Vīra Śāntara we have seven Śāntara rulers. If we assign twenty years to every one of them, we reach a. d. 920 for Cāgi Śāntara, and, therefore, for Āļva Raṇañjaya.¹

^{1.} This date may be verified by examining the date of Adiyūr Sāntivarmā, the father of Jakkala Devī who was given in marriage to Vīra Sāntara, the son of Cāgi Sāntara. If we identify the Sāntivarmā mentioned above with the Sāntivarmā spoken of in connection with the brave deeds of one of his subjects, then, Vīra Sāntara may be placed in circa A.D. 940. Sāntivarmā would then have to be placed in A.D. 940. and not in A.D. 991, as done by Rice, My. & Coorg. p. 186.

We do not know whether the event mentioned in the following undated inscription has to be referred to the times of Alva Ranañjaya.

After the dynastic alliance with the Santaras, the name Pāṇḍya appears more frequently among Ālupa names. We have seen that Pṛṭhvīsāgara (A.D. 730-750) had the name Uttama Pāṇḍya. How the Ālupa rulers from Pṛṭhvīsāgara onwards came to append the surname Pāṇḍya is a detail which cannot be satisfactorily explained for the present. It cannot be that the Ālupas borrowed that name either from Sāntaras, who do not figure at all in the eighth century in the neighbourhood of Tuluva, or from the Pāṇḍyas of Madura, who had no direct dealings with the Ālupa rulers in that age.

The most substantial gain which the Ālupas received from the dynastic connection mentioned above was the friendship of the Sāntara rulers who now appear more frequently on the scene in Tuluva. We shall restrict ourselves to three stone inscriptions which enable us to assert that the Santaras had planted firmly their feet on Tuluva soil. The first of these records was found in the Pañcalingeśvara temple at Kōṭakēri in Bārakūru. We give the inscription in full since it has to be located in Ālupa history.

This record narrates that when Satyavākya Konguņivarmā Dharma Mahārāja, boon lord of Kuvalālapura, lord of Nandagiri, śrīmat Permmānadi was ruling, (he) gave the kalnād of Belgali to Kankayya for piercing Bāva, the nāl-prabhu of Āļvanād who had attacked the Ganga seat (āsana). (E. C. V. Ag. 35, p. 251). The inscription is undated, but Rice has assigned it to about A.D. 930. It cannot be made out whether the Āļvanād refers to Āļvakheda Six Thousand, or to the territories of the other minor families whose name also ended in Āļva. Neither is more information forthcoming about the person c alled Bāva who attacked the Ganga seat. B. A. S.

It opens with figure of a cakra and with svasti, and proceeds to narrate the title of the chieftain thus:samadhigata pañca-mahāsabda mahāmandalesvaram-Uttara-Madhura-adhīśvaram Patti-Pombuccha-puravar-adhīśvaram mahā-ugra-vamsa-lalāmam Padumāvati-Deviya lu(a)bdhavaraprāsāda-sādhitam vipuļa-tulā-purusa-hiranya-dāni-dāna Vānara-dhvajamam mrga-rāja-lāncchanam Kesava-(vira)ritya sakaļa-jana-stutya nīti-sāstra-ni(ratarum) Kanduka-ācārya-mandā radhairyanum (śrīmū)rtti-Nārāyana Kīrti-pārāyanam śrīmatu Viśvanātha-dēvara-dibya śrī-pāda-padma-āradhyakarum parabalasādhakarum-appa Pailana-baliya Vīra Jagadevarasaru ŝrīmatu Pattamahādevivarum Pāndva-devarasarum sthira-simhāsanadim sukha-sankathā-vinodadim rājyam geyuttam-irdda kāladalli Bārahaknvāpurada haravariva nagira hañjamāna-volagadōl-irdda-ā sannidhānadalu Kabūra-haravariyolage śrīmatu Mārkandesvara dēvara vāmabhāgada Mahādevarige naivēdyakke eradu kotta bhūmi hullu...kuva gadde nālgandugedalu bittuva bede-genalu mūde 90...1

The Government Epigraphist (Mr. Venkoba Rao) wrote the following in connection with the above record:—"A certain Pāṇḍyadevarasa has been mentioned as a joint ruler with Jagadevarasa; but we cannot say who these chiefs were."

Our concern lies in identifying the Vīra Jagadevarasa mentioned in the above inscription together with the queen and the ruler Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva, and in fixing the inscription in Ālupa history. We shall first begin

^{1. 175} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 380, pp. 235-6.

^{2.} Ep. Rept. for 1926-7, pp. 108-9.

with the birudas given to the chieftain Vīra Jagadevarasa. He has a string of birudas of which we select the most representative ones: samadhigata pañca-mahā-sabda mahāmaṇḍaleśvaram, Uttara-Madhurādhīśvarum, Paṭṭi-Pombuccha-puravar-adhīśvarum, Mahā-Ugra-vaṁśa-lalāmam Padumavātī-dēviya-labdha-vara-prāsāda-sādhitaṃ. ... Vānara dhvajamam, mṛga-rāja-lāñcchnamam...para-baļa sādhhakarum. These were essentially Sāntara titles.¹

Now, we have many Jagadevas in Karnātaka history. Of these we identify the Vira Jagadevarasa mentioned in the above Kotekeri record with the Jagadeva spoken of in an inscription dated A.D. 1104 as having attacked Dorasamudra, and as having been driven off by Ballala Rāya I and by his brother Bittiga Deva in the same year.² He is the same Jagadeva who is described as one of the feudatories of the Western Calukya monarch Jagadekamalla II. He appears in A.D. 1149-50 as governing from Setu which Rice has located in Kanara (i.e., Tuluva). Obviously after the disaster which he suffered at Dorasamudra in A.D. 1104 when his attack on the Hoysala capital had failed, and his treasury together with the central ornament of his necklace had fallen into the Hoysala hands, he had moved down to Tuluva where he secured the alliance of the Alupa ruler Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra and established a principality at Setu.3

^{1.} Cf. The Santara titles in E.C. VIII. Nr. 35, p. 133 Seq. Mys. & Coorg. pp. 138, 140.

^{2-3.} Rice, My. & Coorg. pp. 99, 140. Fleet makes him ruler of Patti Pombucchapura. Dyn. Kan. Dts. p. 53. (n), 66. For other

It may be noted that in the above inscription from Kotekeri Vira Jagadevarasa, who had secured (completely) the right to use the five great instruments (pañca-mahā-sabda), who was a mahāmandalesvara, chief lord of northern Madhura, boon lord of Patti Pombucchapura, ornament of the great Ugra-vamsa, one who had by the boon obtained from the goddess Padmāvatī having completed the tutā-purusa, mahā-dāna, and hiranyagarbha gifts, one who had the monkey-flag and the lion crest, Keśavayarita (?), Kandukācārya, Mandāra in firmness, in fame Nārāyana, one whose praise was resounded, worshipper at the lotus feet of Viśvanātha, subduer or foreign enemies, and one who belonged to the Pailana-bāļi (?), was not ruling from Bārahakanyāpura. On the other hand, it is distinctly said that Patta Mahādevī and Pāndya Devarasa were seated on the firm throne at Bārahakanyāpura, ruling the kingdom of the world listening to the pleasant stories relating to morality and dharma.

The Pāṇḍya Deva mentioned in the above inscription was no other than the Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva who reigned from A. D. 1113 to A. D. 1155, and two of whose inscriptions were found in the Pañcalingeśvara temple at Kōṭekēṛi in Bārakūru. One of these records also mentions the mūla-sthāna of the god Mārkaṇḍeśvara of the same locality. And the Patta Mahādevi (crowned queen) spoken of in the above

Jagadevas in A.D. 1095, 1160, 1175, 1180, 1189 and 1216, see E. C. VIII. Sa. 66, 87, 91-93, 95, 125, 131, pp. 104-118. B. A. S.

inscription of Vīra Jagadevarasa was the same Pāṇḍya Mahādevī mentioned in the same inscription, where she is distinctly said to be governing Pannirpalliā ūranāļva Pāṇḍya Mahā-dēviyar.¹

The Kōṭekēri inscription under review is, therefore, important, from three points of view:—Firstly, it proves beyond doubt that Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendra's crowned queen was a Sāntara princess with the cognomen of Pāṇḍya. Here we have another link in the Sāntara-Ālupa alliance.

Secondly, it introduces a Sāntara figure whose exact relationship with the Sāntara princess cannot be determined. That he was indeed a chieftain who had pretensions to a territorial rule, and that he gave a grant of land to the god Mahādeva in Bārakūru, there cannot be any doubt.

Thirdly, the evidence of the above inscription demolishes the assertion of Rice that "The extension of the (Sāntara) kingdom below the Ghats probably took place in the fifteenth century when the kings had the title (Mg. 42) ari-rāya-gaṇḍara-dāvaṇi (cattle-rope to the champion over kings)". The appearance of the Sāntaras in Tuluva below the Ghats may be dated to the first half of the fourteenth century A. D. In fact, as will be presently shown, by the first half of the fourteenth century A. D., the Sāntaras had secured an unassailable position in Tuluva. We may note here,

^{1. 171} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 376, pp. 231-232, 11. 16-17.

^{2.} Rice, Mys. & Coorg. p. 140.

however, that the biruda ari-rāya-gaṇḍara-dāvaṇi, which Rice supposes was used by the Śāntaras in the fifteenth century, was similar to the title assumed by Kāltide, son of Vijaṇa Nāyga, during the troublesome times of the Ālupa king Raṇasāgara. The Śambhukallu inscription which supplies us with the details already narrated in the preceding pages, while relating the political history of the Ālupas, gives Kāltide, among other birudas, the following one—That he was one who applied a cattle rope to the array (of his enemies)—vikraman aṇiyu dāvaṇam-oḍḍuvōn. 1

For reasons to be stated in a later context in connection with the Ālupas and the Hoysalas, the epigraph of Vīra Jagadevarasa may be assigned to the year A.D. 1114 when the Āļvakheḍa Six Thousand people committed havoc in the territory of the Hoysals necessitating the extension of the Hoysala arms into Tuļuva. This would mean that the visit of Vīra Jagadevarasa took place a year after the accession of Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva, i.e., in A.D. 1114.

The appearance of Vīra Jagadevarasa, the Santara chieftain, in Bārakūru on the occasion when Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva and his crowned queen were seated in public audience in Bārakūru(Bārakanyāpurada haravariya nagira hañjamāna vaḍḍōlagadōļ-irddaā sannidhānadalu), was not accidental. If our identification of Vīra Jagadevarasa of the Kōṭekēri inscription with Jagadeva who raided Dorasamudra is correct, then,

^{1. 94} af 1901; E. I, IX. pp. 17-18, op. cit.

his presence in Bārakūru is easily explained. This was the age when the Hoysalas had swept over the Karnāṭa-ka. We shall explain how they proved a great danger to the Ālupas. It was to protect the Tuļu country against the aggressive designs of the Hoysalas that Pāṇḍya Ca-kravartin not only cemented the Ālupa-Śānatara alliance by marrying a Śāntara princess, but also by witnessing a grant of land to the god Mahādeva in Bārakūru by the Śāntara chief Jagadeva. Indeed, it is not improbable that the Ālupas had helped the Śāntaras in founding a principality on this side of the Ghats within the limits of Āļvakheḍa Six Thousand as a barrier between themselves and the imperial Hoysalas.¹

Political necessity, therefore, was one of the causes which brought about the Sāntara-Ālupa alliance. Outside this there does not seem to have been anything common between Ālupas who claimed a Lunar descent and the Sāntaras who belonged to the Ugra-vamsa. Nevertheless the dynastic relationship between the two houses may have been responsible for the firm hold which the Sāntaras had in Tuļuva. When we come to the first quarter of the fourteenth century A.D., we see the Sāntaras well established in the eastern part of Tuluva. We gather this from the stone inscription in

^{1.} The exact relationship between Vira Jagadevarasa and the Santara queen of the Alupa ruler cannot be determined from the epigraph. Perhaps he was her father. But this is only a supposition which is based on the order in which the three names appear in the inscription; first that of Vira Jagadevarasa, then that of the queen, and lastly that of the Alupa ruler. B. A. S.

the Gurugala basti at Hiriyangadi near Kārkala in Tuluva. This is a Jaina inscription which begins with the usual Jaina invocation and gives the following birudas to the ruler Lokanātha Devarasa:—

Samasta-bhuvanāśrayam S'rī-prthvīvallabham mahārājādhirājam rāja paramesvaram paramabhattārakam samadhigata-pañca-mahāmandaleśvaram Mattara (Uttara?) Madhurādhiśvaram Patti Pombuccha-puravar-adhīśvaram mahā-Uoravamsa-lalāmam Padmāvatī-dēvi-labdha-vara prāsāda-āsādita vipula-tulā-purusanam Parīśva(Pārśva)-dēvara-dibya-śrī-pāda padma-ārādhakanum-appa śrimatu-rāya-rāja-guru-mandala-ācāryarum rāya-jīvaraksapālarum Ballāla-rāya-citta-camatkārarum mantravādi-makara-dhvajarum-appa srīmatu Cārukīrti pandita-devara dibya 'śri-pada-padma-aradhakanum-appa parabala-jagad-dala śrīman mahāmandaleśvara śrī Lokanātha devpṛthvī-rājyam-geyyuttam-iralu. The phrase prthvī-rājyam-geyyuttam-iralu used in regard to the Mahāmandaleśwara Lokanātha Devarasa suggests that he was ruling perhaps in an independent capacity. This supposotion is strengthened by the absence of the name of the suzerain in the epigraph.

The inscription is dated S'aka-varṣa 1256 neya Bāhva saṃvacc(t)sarada Phālguna S'uddha pañcami Buddha vāradandu which corresponds to A.D. 1335 February Tuesday the 28th, the week day not corresponding.¹

The epigraph records a gift of land to the Santinathadeva basti in Karekaļa (Karkaļa) built by Kumu-

^{1,} Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem., IV. p. 272. Here the Nija Phālguņa has been taken into consideration. B. A. S.

dacandra Bhaṭṭāraka Deva, chief disciple of Bhānukīrti Maladhāri Deva, by Vasa Siddala Devī, the crowned queen (paṭṭada rāṇi) of Śrīmatu Bommi Devarasa, and by the elder sisters of Lokanātha Devarasa, by name Bommala Devī and Somala Devī, in the presence of Allappa Adhikāri, and all the important citizens of the locality. The gift of land (specified in detail) was made on the birthday of Lokanātha Devarasa (Śrī-Lokanātha-dēvarasara vaḍḍantiya dinadalu.)

From the above the following genealogical descent of the ruler Lokanātha may be gathered:—

Bommi Deva = Vasa Siddala Devī

Bommaļa Devī Somala Devī Lokanātharasa

It cannot be made out in what manner Lokanātharasa was connected with Vīra Jagadevarasa mentioned above. But that they belonged to the same Śāntara stock there cannot be any doubt. The following difference, however, may be noted in their birudas:—

Firstly, Vīra Jagadevarasa calls himself merely one who was entitled to the use of the pañca-mahā-śabda and a mahāmaṇḍaleśvara. But Lokanātharasa styles himself samastabhuvanāśraya, śrī-pṛthvīvallabha, mahārājādhirāja, rājaparameśvara, and mahāmaṇḍaleśvara. Hence, Lokanātharasa evidently enjoyed greater independence than Vīra Jagadevarasa.

And, secondly, both call themselves lords of northern Madhura, boon lords of Patti Pombucchapura,

^{1. 71} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 247, pp. 124-5.

crest-jewels born in the Ugra-vamsa, and those who performed many gifts of gold. But whereas Vīra Jagadevarasa was the disciple of Visvanātha Deva, and of the Pailana-baļi (?), Lokanāthrasa was the disciple of Cāru-kīrti Paṇḍita Deva one of whose titles was Ballāļa-rāya-citta-camatkāra (One who charmed the mind of Ballāla Rāya).

Once again we may be permitted to reiterate the similarity between the titles assumed by Lokanātharasa and the Ālupa king Kulaśekharadeva III. The suggestion that the Śāntara ruler was in some manner dynastically connected with the Ālupa king is irresistible.

In neither of the two records—the one hailing from Kōṭekēri and the other from Hiriyangaḍi—is the capital of the Sāntaras distinctly mentioned. Kārkaļa may have been the capital under Lokanātharasa. But the earliest appearance of a Sāntara capital is met with only in the first quarter of the fifteenth century A.D. The stone inscription which gives us this and other details was found in Koraga at Marane in the Kārkaļa tāluka. It is dated Saka 1331 Sarvadhāvi Puṣya Su. 10, Thursday which corresponds to A.D. 1408, December the 27th Thursday. The record was issued when Vīra Bhaira va Kṣamāpāla and his son Pāṇḍya Bhūpāla were ruling from the capital Kervāśe. Evidently Pāṇḍya Bhūpāla was associated with his father as a yuva-rāja.

^{1.} Supra, Ch. II. Sec. 7.

^{2. 530} of 1928-9; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, pp. 59, 10. According to Swamikannu's Tables, Su. 10. corresponds to December Friday the 28th, the week day not corresponding. Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem., V. p. 19.

That the rulers were of the Santara family is proved by the birudas assumed by the king Vīra Bhairava Kṣamāpāla—lord of northern Madhura, boon lord of Paṭṭi Pombucchapura, worshipper of the goddess Padmāvatī, one who had the banner of the monkey god and the insignia of a lion, one who belonged to the Ugra-vamsa and to the family of Jīnadatta.

The Koraga inscription records a grant of land issued from the capital Kervāśe by king Vīra Bhairava Kṣamāpāla, at the instance of Vasanta Kīrti Rāuļa of the Balātkāragaṇa, for offerings to the image of Pārśvanātha and for feeding ṛṣis in the basti at Bārakūru built by the king at Coliyakēri in that city. The Madras Government Epigraphist (Mr. K. V. Subrahmanya Aiyer) has identified the Pāṇḍya Bhūpāla of the above inscription with the Vīra Pāṇḍya who built the famous Gomața statue at Kārkaļa in A.D. 1432.1

A passing note may be made of the later Santara kings of Tuluva. One of them was Abhinava Pandya Deva Odeya of the family of Jinadatta mentioned in a

^{1.} Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, p. 80. The reference is given to 63 of 1901. Two objections to the above identification are the following:— In the Marane record Pandya Bhūpālā's father Vīra Bhairava Kṣamāpāla is mentioned as a ruler of the Ugra-vamśa. In the Gomata statue record (63 of 1901) dated A.D. 1432 February the 13th, Vīra Pāṇḍya's father Bhairava is said to have belonged to the Lunar race. Further, the preceptor of Vīra Bhairava Kṣamāpāla was Vasantakīrti Rāuļa of the Balātkāragana; whereas the preceptor of Bhairava of the Gomata statue record was Lalitakīrti Bhatṭāraka of Panasoge of the Deśiyagana. (63 of 1901; E. I. VII, p. 109; I. A, XXIX, p. 119, seq.) B. A. S.

stone record dated Saka 1378 (A.D. 1556-7), found in Hiriyangadi in Kārkaļa.

The continual recurrence of the name Pandya in the Alupa and other records must have led the reader to enquire whether the Alupas, the Santaras, and the Ucchangi Pandyas had anything to do with the Pandyas of Madura. The Madras Government Epigraphist (Mr. Venkoba Rao) after noting the similarity between the Lunar race of the Alupas and that of the Ucchangi Pāndyas, remarks that the latter "also had family traditions similar to those of the Pandyas proper". Then, commenting on the biruda of Tribhuvanamalla Pāndya (A.D. 1083-1124)—Irukkavēla—, he opines that that title was also the name borne by members of the ancient family of "Kodambālūr chiefs figuring in the Sangham works, who had their headquarters at Kodambālūr (Kodambai) in the Pudukkottai State", and who also belonged to the Yadava clan. Mr. Venkoba Rao's conclusion is the following: - "A consideration of all these facts (given above) leads to the conclusion that the Ucchangi Pandvas had some sort of connexion with the Kodambālūr Yādava chiefs: but we have no data to definitely posit if this consanguinity dated only from the time of the victories at Mangalore, Vātāpi and Adhirajāmangala noted above, or whether the Ucchangi Pāndyas, and also the Alupas, belonged to one of the eighteen Yadava clans who are believed to have migrated from the north in the Puranic age under

^{1. 70} of 1901; Ep. Rept. for 1926-7, pp. 108-9.

the leadership of the pioneer coloniser, sage Agastya (Vēļīr-varaļāru, p. 8), and to have settled all along the west coast down to the southern corner of the Travancore State, where the Āy chiefs of Āykkuḍi of the 9th century A.D., Kōkkarunandaḍakkaṇ and Vikramāditya Varaguṇa, claim to belong to the Vṛishnikula (Travancore Arch. Series I, p. 191)."

To state that the Ucchangi Pāṇḍyas "had some sort of connexion with Koḍambāļur Yādava chiefs", and to draw the inference that these and the Āy chiefs of Āykkuḍi were of one stock because the Karnāṭaka rulers had intimate dealings with the Pallavas, is to mistake fact for fiction and to postulate conclusions that have no basis in history.

To start with, we may observe on what sure ground the lineage of the Ucchangi Pāṇḍyas and that of the Madura Pāṇḍyas together that of the Koḍambāļūr chiefs and of the Pallavas, may be said to rest. The Ucchangi Pāṇḍyas called themselves originally Lords of Gokarṇapura, and Protectors of Konkaṇarāṣṭra and later on as Lords of Kañcipura. They had the fish crest, and one of them had the title of Irukkavēļo.² But this is of no avail in tracing a common descent between the Ucchangi Pāṇḍyas and the Tamil rulers. For the Tamil titles as well as the Tamil emblem were assumed by the Ucchangi Pāṇḍyas after inflicting a crushing defeat on the Tamil kings and generals. The biruda of Lord of Kañcipura was adopted by the Pāṇḍyas

^{1.} Ep. Rep. for 1926-7, p. 108. 2. Rice, Mys. & Coorg., pp. 149-50.

in consequence of their having defeated the Colas.¹ In like manner we may assume that the title of Irukkavēļa was perhaps borne by Tribhuvanamalla Pāṇḍya after defeating a Koḍambāļūr chief. As to the typically Madura Pāṇḍya emblem of the fish crest, we shall not be wrong in supposing that that biruda was borne by the same Ucchangi Pāṇḍya feudatory after winning a victory over the Madura Pāṇḍyas. He is credited with the conquest of many countries among which Drāviļa and Andhra appear in A.D. 1128.²

That the Ucchangi Pāndyas assumed the name of the ruler whom they subdued and showed particular favour to the subjugated territory, is further proved by the name Cedi Rāja borne by the Ucchangi ruler Pāndya, son of Mangaya or Āditya Deva, who had subduded the Kalacuriya king of Cedi or Bundelkhand. The same Pāndya ruler is stated in one inscription to have been "permanently partial to the Pāndya country", thereby suggesting that he probably made common cause with them for purely political reasons. In fact, the statement in the inscriptions that the blows of the bracelets of Āditya Deva's son Pāndya resounded on the conch shell on the top of Purandhara's head, and that he set up his fish crest on the great rocks

^{1.} Rice, Mys. & Coorg., pp. 149-150. Cf. the Hoysala Vinayāditya inscribing the word Rakkasa Hoysala on his flag after defeating the Gangas. E. C. VI. Mg. 13, p. 61. This refers to a victory, and not, as Rice supposes, to "connection with the Ganga King Rakkas." My. & Coorg., p. 98.

^{2.} E. C. XI. Dg. 90, p. 68. See also Dg. 3, p. 24.

on the chief mountains are to be understood in the sense that they describe his military achievements and nothing more.¹

As regards the alleged Yadava descent common to the Ucchangi Pāndyas and Kodambālūr chiefs, it may be noted that no tangible conclusion can be drawn from it. Diverse feudatory families with nothing common between them styled themselves as having belonged to the Lunar race. Thus, for instance, both the Ucchangi Pandyas and Hoysalas claimed to be of the Yādava-vamsa. But it is wrong to infer that they had a common origin. The Yādava claims of all or most of the ruling families of southern and western India, especially of the mediaeval times, are wholly inadmissible. We have shown from the history of the Alupas themselves that they were perhaps of the Naga origin. The suggestion that the Ālupas and Ucchangi Pāndyas belonged to one of the eighteen Yādava clans, who are supposed to have been introduced by the sage Agastya, is entirely gratuitous. Had the Alupas the least pretensions to the Yadava descent or had they been connected in some way with the sage Agastya, we would have had that fact mentioned in any one of the Alupa records, or in those of the Karnātaka monarchs who had intimate relations with the Alupas. But the inscriptions of neither the Alupas nor Karnātaka rulers contain any hint in regard to Agastya and the Yadava descent of the Alupas.

^{1.} Read, Mys. & Coorg. pp. 149-150; E. C. VII. Intr. p. 26; E. C. XI. Intr. pp. 16-18.

Mr. Venkoba Rao postulates certain theories in the same Report for 1927, concerning the name Pandya among the Alupas. "On the analogy of a time honoured convention which existed in those days, namely, that a feudatory generally added the name of his suzerain to his personal name, in token of his subordinate status, we have to assume that either the Alupa chieftains of the locality began to use Pandya surnames expressive of their vassalage to them, or that the introduction, if new, of Pandya names was the result of some possible marriage relationship between the Ālupas and the Pandyas at this period. This will have to be confirmed only by future finds." The writer then connects the name Uttama Pandya met with in the Alupa records with Melai-Kodumaļūr in the Rāmnād district which was rechristened Uttama-Pandva-nallur "from some Uttama Pāndya". He then proceeds directly to deal with the temple of the god Pandyesvara found in a suburb of Mangalore1.

The tradition of appending the surname of a suzerain by a feudatory was well known both to the Karnātaka and Tamil peoples. But to assert that the Ālupas took the name from some Pāṇḍyas (of Madura?) is erroneous. Expecting a few notices of the Pāṇḍyas of Madura as related above, and a few more to be given in the next chapter, there is nothing to suggest that the Ālupas were subservient to the Madura Pāṇḍyas in any period of their history. We meet with the name Uttama

^{1.} Ep. Rept. for 1926-27, pp. 107-108.

Pāndya for the first time only in connection with Prthvīsāgara who bore that surname as well as the name Vijayāditya. There is no evidence to prove that that Ālupa ruler was in any way connected with the Madura Pāndyas. It is futile, therefore, to trace the Alupa surname Uttama Pāndya either to the Pāndyas Madura or to the name Melai-Kodumalūr alias Uttama-Pāndva-nallūr. We have seen that it was with Prthvīsagara that the tradition began of associating the Alupas with the Yadu-vamsa. Udayavara passed through a critical period when Prthvisagara became king. is no wonder that he assumed the surname Vijavāditva and Uttama Pandva, and thereby connected himself with the Pandyas of the epics to whom his adherents must have traced his descent. Indeed, there seems to have been a strong tendency among the Alupa rulers to style themselves after the heroes of the Mahābhārata. accounts for the name Svetavāhana, Vijaya(āditya), and Dhanañjaya among the Alupas. Only in this manner can we explain the name Pandya appearing in the Ālupa records.

9. THE KADAMBAS AND THE ALUPAS

Territorial contiguity and political status were perhaps responsible for the close association of the Ālupas with the Kadambas since earliest times. Tradition, as we shall narrate in the next chapter, connects Mayūravarmā, the first great historical figure in

^{1. 527} of 1928-9; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, p. 80.

Kadamba history, with Tuluva. Historically speaking, however, the Halmidi stone inscription (Belūr tāluka, Hassan district, Mysore State), discovered in 1935 by Mr. B. Rama Rao of the Mysore Archaeological Department, carries not only the Ālupa genealogy one step further than Māramma Āļvarasar, but enables us to assert that Tuluvanādu and the Kadambamandala began to have intimate relationship from about the fifth century A.D.¹.

The Halmidi stone inscription is being edited by Dr. Krishna of Mysore in the Annual Report of the Mysore Archaeological Depaatment. A transcript of the record being unfortunately not available, we shall have to be content with the paper which Mr. Rama Rao read at the Eighth All-India Oriental Conference in December 1935. The epigraph in question is of firstrate importance from the point of view of the Alupa history as well as from that of the Kannada language. It is in old Kannada excepting the invocatory verse which is in Sanskrit. The Sanskrit verse is in praise of Visnu. The characters of the record, according to its discoverer Mr. Rama Rao, belong to the fifth cen-This assumption in regard to the date of tury A.D. the inscription is further borne out by the reference to Mrgesa, the Kadamba king, Pasupati, a prince or

^{1.} The assertions of Mr. Moraes that Kadambamandala or Vanavāsimandala was ruled over by the Ālupas throughout the period of the Cālukya predominance, and that under the Rāṣtrakūṭas too it continued to be governed by the Ālupas for well nigh half a century till about the year A.D. 800 (Kadamba-Kula, p. 81) are incorrect. B.A.S.

general, and the Bhatāri-kula which names have been mentioned in stone inscriptions assigned to circa A.D. 450 and found in the Prāņeśvara temple at Tālgunda.

The Halmidi stone inscription records a battle in which the Sendrakas, the Bāṇas, and the Pallavas took part, and registers a gift of two villages named Palmidi (mod. Halmidi) and Mūlivalli (mod. Malēnahalli) as bālgalcu(war-relief) to Vija-arasa by a Kadamba chief of the Bhaṭāri-kula. In this connection the name Āluva (ka?) appears as one of the allies on the side of the Kadamba chief².

We may incidently note here that the village Palmidi mentioned in this record was no other than the same Palmidi said to have been in the Sendraka-viṣaya. which was given as a gift to Bhavasvāmi by the Kadamba king Kṛṣṇa-varmā, as is related in the Beṇṇūr plates assigned on palaeographical grounds to A.D. 420.3 Under what conditions this village of Palmidi was transferred from the possession of Bhavasvāmi to that of Vija-arasar is not known. But the Beṇṇūr plates confirm the historicity of the village of Palmidi and its importance in the Kadamba times.

^{1.} My. Archl. Rept. for 1911, p. 35.

^{2.} I regret very much that beyond this I am unable to comment on the Halmidi record. A short account of this fine discovery appears in the Summaries of the Papers read at the Eighth All-India Oriental Conference, pp. 99-100. But a cursory examination of the characters of the inscription which Mr. Rama Rao so kindly gave me for perusal in Mysore at the Conference convinced me that his opinion in regard to the age of the characters was quite valid. B. A. S.

^{3.} E. C. V. Bl. 245, p. 276.

The Halmidi record is doubly important. Firstly, it establishes beyond doubt the antiquity of the Kannada language. And, secondly, it carries the Ālupa name to the fifth century A.D. The plain name Āļuva given in this important Kadamba record obviously has to be referred to a ruler who preceded Māramma Āļvarasar whom we have assigned to about A.D. 575. The Ālupa ruler mentioned in the Halmidi inscription could not have been the later Āļuvarasar who, according to our calculations, succeeds Māramma Āļvarasar. The exact identity of the Āļuva king of the Halmidi record cannot be determined at the present stage of our investigations.

A stone inscription found in the Mahālingeśvara temple in the Bantra village, Puttūru tāluka, is of particular interest in asmuch as it not only shows that a part of Tuluva, probably that adjoining the slopes of the Western Ghats, was under the Kadambas but also gives us the name of an altogether new figure in the history of the Kadambas. The characters of this stone record are assigned to the eighth century A.D. The ruler named is Nṛpamallarāja, while the Katamba (Kadamba) king called Rācamallan-Dugarāja, brother of Vilārittaliyarasa and of Narasingan-Dugarāja, is also referred to in the same epigraph. The inscription probably registers an agreement pertaining to the enjoyment of lands.¹

^{1. 351} of 1930-31; Ep. Rept. of the S. Circle for 1930-31, p. 49.

The name Nṛpamallarāja is most unlike any Ālupa name we have met with hitherto. Whether this ruler is to be fixed in the gap after A.D. 800 and before A.D. 920 is doubtful for the present. Likewise is it not possible to decide in what manner he was connected with the Alupa house. As regards the other names, Racmallan-Dugarāja, Viļārittaļiyarasa and Narasingan-Dugarāja, we may observe the following:— The fact that the first one is called a Katamba shows that they belonged to the Kadamba family; and the fact that the stone inscription was found within the limits of Tuluya indicates that the Kadambas about this time had some relations with Tuluva, the exact nature of which cannot be determined for the present. The names Rācmallan-Dugarāja, and Narasingan, it may also be noted, are met with in the history of the Gangas of the main line.1 But we must leave this question here for want of more data, noting however that Rācmallan-Dugarāja does not figure in any known Kadamba record discovered hitherto.

^{1.} There were three Rācmallas in the history of the Gangas:—Rācmalla I, son of Nītimārga who seems to have come to the throne in A.D. 870. E. C. I. Coorg, No. 2; My. Arch. Rep. for 1930, p. 145. Nītimārga himself was the son of Rācmalla I whose dates are not known. Rācmalla III was also called Narasinga Rācamalla. E. C. VIII, Nr. 35, p. 135; Rice, Mys. & Coorg., p. 50. The name Dugarāja recalls the Ganga name Dugamāra, whose other name was Ereyapa. This Ganga ruler was king over Koļāla and the adjoining nāds in the Gangavādi in A.D. 767. E. C. X. Intr. p. xi. He was the third son of Śrīpuruṣa. E. C. X. Intr. p. viii; Mys. & Coorg., pp. 39, 55; My. Arch. Rept. for 1929, p. 103-104. In later Ganga history we have Narasinga, brother of Erega. E. C. VIII. Intr. p. vi. B. A. S.

When we come to the later half of the eleventh century and the beginning of the twelfth century A.D., we find the Kadamba rulers, who were in some manner allied to those of the earlier stock of Banavase, engaged in bringing Tuluva within their sphere. The founder of this line of the Kadambas of later times was Barma Deva, whose son was Boppa Deva. The son of the latter was Soyi Deva one of whose generals was Vikramāditya. The defaced inscription dated Saka 1099 Jyeṣtha Su. Daśami Ādivāra (=A.D. 1177 May the 9th Monday the week day not corresponding), which contains these details informs us that general Vikramāditya was placed over the Banavasenāḍ and that the kings of Hayve, Konkaṇa, the celebrated Gangavāḍi, and Tulu gave tribute to him.¹

How far general Vikramāditya's claims to have levied tribute from Tuļuva were valid, and whether the reference is to the Ālupa king or to the Sāntara chiefs who may have had their principality on the outskirts of Tuļuva, as mentioned above, it is not possible

^{1.} Rice assigns this record to A.D. 1237 which is altogether inadmissible. For the date is clearly given in the original. E. C. VIII. Sb. 384, p. 68; Swamikannu, Ind. Eph. IV, p. 356. On Soyi Deva read Rice, Mys. & Coorg., Mr. Moraes makes Barmarasa and his grandson Soyi Deva rulers of Nāgarakhaṇḍa. (Kadamba-Kula, pp. 234, seq.) Why he doubts their Kadamba claims (ibid, p. 235) cannot be made out. In circa A.D. 1182, they are called rulers born "in the lotus line of the Kadambas," (E. C., VII. Sk. 197, p. 125), and in A.D. 1171 Soyi Deva is styled "the glory of the Kadamba-kula" (E.C. VIII. Sb. 345, p. 60). Mr. Moraes has nothing to say about Soyi Deva's general Vikramāditya who is alleged to have levied tribute from Tulu. B. A. S.

to say for the present. But the Ālupa ruler who was a contemporary of general Vikramāditya was Bhujabala Kulasekhara Ālupendradeva I whose times, indeed, were pregnant with trouble for the Ālupas.

For we have already seen that under the Western Cālukya monarch Someśvara IV, his general Kāma Deva also called Kāva Deva, viceroy over Banavase Twelve Thousand and other provinces, as is related in an inscription dated A.D. 1189-90, levied tribute from the Tulu country.¹

A third incident in the reign of Bhujabala Kula-śekhara Ālupendradeva I relates to the battle on the plain of Birusa in which the Ālupas seem to have given a good account of themselves. This is gathered from an illegible inscription which may be assigned to the year A.D. 1220, of the times of the Kadamba Cakravartin Malli Deva. The inscription relates the following:—"When...Malli-devarasa was ruling...when Sāreya Bhairava Ñāyaka had proved superior to the Āļvas in battle, the Āļuva Sankeya Nāyaka slew the whole of Bīreya Deva's force. So that both armies applauded, he fought in the plain of Birusa, and in Basavali was united to the celestial nymphs who bore him away."²

This epigraph needs some comment. There is nothing in it to justify the words "was ruling a peaceful

^{1.} Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dts. p. 86, op. cit.

^{2.} The date A.D. 1200 given to this by Rice is purely hypothetical. E.C. VIII. Sb. 188, p. 30. It is possible that we may have to refer this inscription to the second year of the reign of Malli Deva or hereabouts. B. A. S.

kingdom" inserted by Rice while translating this record. If Malli Deva's sixth year was A.D. 1224, as the Kuppagadde stone inscription informs us,1 then the first year of his reign may be taken to be A.D. 1217-8. It has been wrongly inferred from the above record that "Sāreva Bhairava Nāyaka who was evidently the head of the new dynasty, attempted at this time to overthrow the Aluva family, the constituted authority in the province, and carve for himself an independent kingdom. From the name Bhairava we may conclude that this Sāreva Bhairava was one of the Sāntara chieftains of Kārkala. Possibly this was the old family of the Santaras, who finding it impossible to retain their power in the struggle for supremacy that was being carried on for a century round their original home migrated westwards and attempted to wrest the power from the Aluva rulers".2

The above statements are a conglomeration of conjectures. Sāreya Bhairava Nāyaka was not related in any way to the Bhairava chieftains of Kārkaļa; he did not attempt to overthrow the Ālupa dynasty at this time; the Śāntara family did not migrate westwards from their "original home" -which in itself is an indefinite phrase-; and there is nothing to show that the record under discussion can in any way to be taken to

^{1.} E. C. VIII. Sb. 180, p. 29. Cf. Elliot, Carnata-deśa Inscriptions, II, pp. 601-604 cited in Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dts., p. 594 (2nd ed.); Moraes, Kadamba-Kula, p. 148, n. (1).

^{2.} Moraes, ibid, p. 150.

prove that the Santaras intended to wrest political power from the Alupas.

All that the epigraph records is a spirited battle in which the Aluvas under their leader Sankeva Nāvaka showed their traditional courage which, as pointed out elsewhere in this treatise, had earned from their opponents the name of submarine fire the Tuluva forces. The original runs thus: - Sāreya Bhairava Nāyakan Alva migil-agi ranadol-irivalu. This has been incorrectly translated by Rice as "when Sareya Bhairava Navaka was greatly slaving (?) the Alvas in battle." There is nothing in the inscription to show that Sareya Bhairava Nāyaka was the head of the new dynasty, and that he intended to carve out a new principality for himself. On the other hand, his master was Bireya Deva whose forces the gallant Aluva Sankeya Nāyaka slew, although the latter lost his life in the encounter. This Bireva Deva was not a Santara but a chieftain of Candavūru who is mentioned as one entitled to the band of five chief instruments, and an elephant-good to hostile kings at the end of a grant recorded in the reign of the Yadava (Seuna) king Simhana, and assigned to about A.D. 1215.2 Whether he is to be identified with Kumāra Bīrarasa, about whom we shall presently say a few words, is doubtful. But Candavuru seems to have given some trouble to the Alupa rulers, as will be pointed out in a later context.

^{1.} In the transliteration Rice adds the following words which are not to be found in the original: adan antu viram. E.C. VIII. p. 65.

^{2.} Ibid, Sb. 276, p. 48.

Sixteen years later in A.D. 1216, April the 27th Wednesday, another great battle was fought also within the limits of Tuluva. The stone inscription which gives us these details was found at Kuppagadde near the temple of Ganapati, Sohrab tāluka, Mysore State. It describes a battle fought near the village of Parige. That the Kadamba Cakravartin Kava Devarasa took the initiative is evident from the statement that his generals Keśavadeva, Bommeya and others marched on Bāleyamakki and Sode (... Kāvadevarasaru Kesavadeva Bommeya mukhyavāći palarum nāyakarum Bālevamakki Sodiya mēle dandam bīla pēlal...). These places which are now outside Tuluva, the former near Balehonnur in Koppa tāluka, and the latter twelve miles north of Śirśi in the North Kanara district, were then within Tuluva. In this battle of Parige, we may incidently note, Masana, a servant of Bitteva Hebbaruva, met with a heroic death.1 The Kāva Deva referred to in this record was no other than the Kadamba Cakravartin Kāva Deva who ruled from A.D. 1219 till A.D. 1231.2

Bhujabala Kulasekhara Ālupendra I's last date is A.D. 1215. It is possible that the battle of Parige may

^{1.} Mys. Archl. Rept. for 1929, pp. 148, 268, 269.

^{2. 1}bid, p. 148. Rice places a Kadamba Cakravartin Candāvūru Tailapa Deva's son Kāva Deva, called Kadamba Rudra, in circa A.D. 1000. E. C. VIII. Sa. 30, p. 96. Mr. Moraes conjectures that Kāva Deva "probably came to the throne in or about A.D. 1260"! Kadamba-Kula, p. 154. Parige, it may incidentally be added, seems to have been within the jurisdiction of the Alupas since the days of Citravāhana II. It is mentioned in the epigraph which describes his rebellion. E. C. VIII. Sb. 10, p. 3, op. cit.

have been fought during the last year of his reign. In any case it is evident from the above that his reign was full of trouble for the Alupa people.

We may observe here the activities of the daughter of a Kadamba king in Tuluva. A stone inscription found in the Amrtesvara temple at Tiruvailu in the Mangalore tāluka, dated Saka 1312 Sukla, Mesa 1 (which is evidently a mistake for 11), Monday (A.D. 1389 April the 5th Monday), relates that under the Vijayanagara monarch Harihara Mahārāya, Mallarasa was the governor placed over the Mangalūrurājya. The epigraph records a sarvamānya gift of land by Padumala Devi, daughter of Kāma Deva of the Mukkanna Kadamba-vamsa, to the temple of Amrtanatha Deva at Omanjuru for worship and offerings to the god and for the maintenance of a feeding satra. It is interesting to observe that the management of the gift was left in the hereditary charge of three members of the Bhattitilla family.2

Who this Kāma Deva was, cannot be determined. As already mentioned, we have had an Ālupa Kāma Deva whose inscription was found in the Durgā Parameśvarī temple at Iruvaila in the Kārkaļa tāluka. The relationship between the two cannot be made out.

Swamikannu, Ind. Eph. IV. p. 380. Saka 1311=Sukla, and Saka 1312=Pramoda.

^{2. 465} of 1928-9. On the Kadamba rulers connected with the legend of Mukkanna, see infra Chapter IV.

^{3. 477} of 1028-9, op. cit.

Turning to another Kadamba line, we find the following in an inscription discovered in the temple of Narsimha in North Kanara. It deals with the conquests of Jayakeśin I who is said to have assembled the Kadambas, conquered the Ālupas, established the Western Cālukyas in their kingdom, caused the Cālukyas and the Colas to become friends at Kañci, and made Gopakapatṭaṇa (Goa) his capital. This inscription of the Kadamba king of Goa is dated Kaliyuga 4270 (A.D. 1169-70).

The Kadamba king mentioned here could only have been the Jayakeśin of Konkan spoken of by Bilhana in his Vikramānkadevacarita as having brought presents to the Western Cālukya monarch Vikramāditya VI. The Ālupa lord in the above record may be identified with Bhujabala Kulaśekhara Ālupendra Deva I on the following grounds:—

If we are to trust the above inscription which describes the glorious conquests of Jayakeśin I, then, we are to suppose that the subjugation of the lord of the Ālupas took place either in A.D. 1169-70 or earlier. Jayakeśin I is represented as ruling over Gopakapattana in A.D. 1070-1.² But as a feudatory of the Western Cālukyaking Someśvara I, he figures as lord of the Konkan in A.D. 1052-53.³

^{1.} J. Bom. RAS IX. pp. 262-282; Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dts. pp. 90-91 (1st ed.); 444 (2nd ed.); Ep. Rept. for 1925-26, pp. 93-4. Mr. Moraes's remarks that the Alupas were "refractory mahamandalesvaras" about this time (Kadamba-Kula, p. 183) are groundless. B. A. S.

^{2. 431} of 1926.

^{3.} Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dts. p. 90 (1st ed.); 567 (2nd ed.).

When did Jayakesin conquer the lord of the Alupas? It is reasonable to suppose that the conquests. mentioned in the inscription from North Kanara took place in A.D. 1169-70. Now, according to the Alupa genealogy given above, Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradava I reigned from A.D. 1113 till A.D. 1155. We have seen too that at first he had acknowledged the suzerainty of the Western Calukvas, and that he later on had assumed independence. It may be presumed that he continued to be an independent king till the last year of his reign (A.D. 1155). We cannot place the subjugation of the lord of the Alupas in the reign of Bhujabala Kavi Alupendradeva, since the date A.D. 1169-70 is far removed from the last year of that Alupa ruler. we accept it, however, it would mean that Bhujabala Kavi Alupendradeva reigned for fifty-seven years (A.D. 1113-A.D. 1170) which is impossible. Hence the only alternative is to suppose that the subjugation of the lord of the Alupas took place in the reign of the next Ālupa ruler Bhujabala Kulasekhara Ālupendradeva I whose earliest date is A.D. 1176. If this is accepted, Kulasekhara Alupendradeva I's first regnal year would be A.D. 1170.

A word may be said in regard to this Alupa king. He had to meet with the opposition of the Karnāṭaka and Konkan rulers on five different occasions. That he continued to rule for forty years and that he transmitted to his successor Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva Alupendradeva I the sthira-simhāsana of Bārahakanyāpura, inspite of all

these dangers, is in itself the best proof of his ability both as a ruler and a soldier.

10. THE KALACURIYA, THE KĀKATĪYA, AND THE HOSAGUNDA SCHEMES IN TULUVA

Before we pass on to the topic of Hoysala aggrandizement in Tuluva, it may be worth while to see in what manner the Kalacuriyas, the Kākatīyas, and the Hosagunda rulers were connected with Tuluva.

Of the general Keśimayya, in the reign of the Kalacuriya monarch Bijjala, it is said in an epigraph dated A.D. 1157 that he conquered Sanka Male. We do not know whether the name Sanka Male can be referred to its namesake in Tuluva. The Sanka Male figures in Tuluva folksongs called Pāḍadānas, and it is also the name given to the locality where the Madananteśvara (now rechristened Venkaṭaramaṇa) temple of Manjeśvara stands. How Ālupa Jagadevarasa was involved in the conflict between Vīra Sāntara, a feudatory of king

^{1.} Rice, Mys. Inscr. p. lxxiii, 155. There is a Dandanāyaka Keśirāja or Keśimayya who is described in A.D. 1147-8 as governor over the Belvoļa 300, the Palasige 12,00, and the Pānugal 500, under the Western Cālukya Jagadekamalla II. Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dts. p. 53. It cannot be made out whether the two Keśirājas were the same. We have here to observe that a Kaļacuriya general the Mahāmanḍaleśvara Bijjaļa under the Western Cālukya Taila III, misused the trust reposed in him and was responsible for the downfall of the Western Cālukyas. Fleet, ibid, p. 54. It may be that the Danḍanāyaka Keśirāja of A.D. 1147-8 went over to the Kaļacuriya side in the reign af Taila III. B. A. S.

^{2.} Infra, Ch. VI. Sec. 6.

Bijjala, and Bīrarasa of Hosagunda in A.p. 1164, has already been described in an earlier context.

The Kākatīva king Pratāpa Rudra is said to have subdued Mahārāstra, Kalinga, Saurāstra, Gurjara, Varahāta, Karnāta, Drāvida, and Taula(va). He is represented as the lord of all the above countries. had an army nine lakhs strong. This is related in a record dated about A.D. 1234.1

Pratāpa Rudra's claims for lordship over Tuluva as well as over the incredibly large army given above may be dismissed as bombast. The record which gives us the above details is an epigraph of doubtful authenticity. It must be admitted that the Alupa records are silent for nearly forty years till the accession of Vira Pāndvadeva Ālupendradeva I. But that is no justification for admitting the claims of Pratapa Rudra of having subdued Tuluva. All that may be said on behalf of the Kākatīva ruler is that the inscription merely echoes the glory of his general Prolaraja who is credited with the capture of the Western Calukya king Taila III.2

With the Hosgunda rulers, however, Tuluva had more intimate relations. The Hosagunda chieftains were of the Santara stock with their chief town first at Kallise, and then at Hosagunda which they made their rājadhānia. We have already discussed the importance of the Siddheśvara temple vīragal which describes the

^{1.} E. C. XII. Tm. 14, p. 5. The original of this inscription is not forthcoming. Ibid, p. 5. n. (1).

^{2.} Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dts. p. 54.

aid Ālupa Jagadevarasa gave his ally Vīra Śāntaradeva in A.D. 1164 against Birarasa of Hosagunda. In A.D. 1229 on the death (atitam appa) of Kumāra Bammarasa, Kumāra Bīrarasa is said to have ruled the Sāntalige Thousand in peace and wisdom. The following are some of the birudas given to him:—satva-Ratnākara s'aranāgata-vaira-pañiara s'rī-Bille'svara-dēvara dibva-śrī-pāda-padma-ārādhakarum appa. These birudas, among others, are given to Kumāra Bīrarasa in an inscription which Rice has assigned to about A.D. 1221. That the date assigned to it is inadmissible will be evident from the following considerations: - In this later inscription we have an extra biruda pertaining to Tuluva which is not met with in the preceding record, viz., that Kumāra Bīrarasa was a "Shaker of the Tulu Raya (Tulu-Raya gampanacarya).2 Evidently the second inscription has to be referred to a later age (circa A.D. 1248), when Kumāra Bīrarasa had interfered in Tuluva affairs.

One of the birudas—śrī-Billeśvara dēvara dibya-śrī-pāda-padmārādhakarum appa—is, however, applied to a Bīradevarasa in A.D. 1254 (January the 29th), when he marched with full military equipment (sakala sāmagra sahitam) against Idu Sāvanta of Bidirūru, and plundered all his valuables. Dr. Krishna has identified Bidirūru mentioned here with Bendore or Nagar of later history. But Bidirūru is the name of Mūdubidre in

^{1.} E. C. VIII. Sa. 146, pp. 121, 326.

^{2.} Ibid, Nr, 8. p. 127.

^{3.} My. Archl. Rept. for 1929, pp. 146-8, 274.

Tuluva, near where there is still a prominent household called the Idu-bidu. But we are unable to say in what manner Bīrarasa was connected with Kumāra Bīrarasa.

In A.D. 1255 Kumāra Bīrarasa had one of the birudas given above slightly modified. He is called this year "Promoter of the Tuļu kingdom (Tuļu Rājya samuddharaṇam)." As yet no mention is made of the capital (rājadhāni), although the nelevīdu has been mentioned, as will be related presently.

It is only in A.D. 1275 that Bammarasa Deva, who was evidently the son of Bīrarasa, is called the establisher of the Tulu Rāya (Tulu Rāya pratistāpanācārya), boon lord of Patti Pombucchapura, master of the western ocean, and is stated to have been in the capital (rājadhāni) of Hosagunda.²

The genealogy of these Santaras of Hosagunda is given in a later record dated A.D. 1287 which continues to prefix the same biruda (Tulu Rāya-sthāpanācārya) to the next chieftain Tammarasa.³

Tammarasa's son was Bīrarasa, who is mentioned in a record dated 1294 of the reign of the Yādava ruler Rāmacandra. Bīrarasa Bommarasa is also called Taļu Rāya pratisthāpanācārya in this record.

^{1.} E. C. VIII. Sa. 150, text pp. 121, 328.

^{2.} Ibid, Sa. 134, p. 119.

^{3.} Ibid, VII. Sk. 312, pp. 153, 352.

^{4.} Ibid, VIII. Sb. 502, p. 84. Dr. Krishna discusses a damaged vīragal found at Nadakalasi describing the death of Bīrarasa Bammarasa and of Soyi Ballahadeva, the latter being the son of Isvara Deva

The genealogical descent of the Hosagunda rulers as gathered from the above inscriptions is as follows:

Jīnadatta's line

Vīra Sāntara

Others

Colama

Ring Bīra (A.D. 1229 - A.D. 1255)

Brahma or Bammarasa (A.D. 1275)

Tammarasa (A.D. 1287)

Bīrarasa Bammarasa (A.D. 1294)

We do not know what precisely were the circumstances which secured for Hosagunda chieftains the biruda Tulu rāya pratiṣṭhāpanācārya. There is no evidence to prove that it refers to the Ālupas. It is true that there is a gap in the Ālupa history between A.D. 1215 and A.D. 1254 when Bīrarasa of Hosagunda administered his chiefship. But the reference seems to be to the activities of the Sāntaras of Hosagunda

of the Sinda family. The vīragal contains only the cyclic year Kīlaka. Dr. Krishna has assigned this vīragal to A.D. 1188-9 (My. Archl. Rep. for 1930, p. 217) on the strength of another record noticed by Rice in the E. C. VIII. Sb. 276, p. 47, and assigned by him to circa A.D. 1180. But since we know that Bīrarasa Bammarasa's date is A.D. 1294, the above vīragal has to be placed in about A.D. 1308, and the supplementary grant edited by Rice to the middle of the 13th century A.D. (circa A.D. 1294). B. A. S.

round the principality of Setu or Setuvinabidu (southwest of Sagara), where they set up one of their own as a chief or helped one of their allies to secure a footing. Our surmise is proved by the activities of the first prominent Hosagunda ruler Birarasa. In a record dated A.D. 1248 he is given most of the titles mentioned above but not that referring to Tulu, thus showing beyond doubt that Birarasa did not come into contact with Tuluva till A.D.1248. The interest of the epigraph lies in the fact that it gives Bīrarasa's residence (nelevīdu) at Kallise. This shows that the Santara chiefs had not yet made Hosagunda their rājadhāni. The record relates that when "Bīrarasa went to Setu, and captured Malisāle. Mudiga son of Mandasāle Bīroja's son Bankoja and Bāgiyabbe, broke down both Setu and Kaţāra", but died in the attempt.1

In the reign of the next Hosagunda chieftain, too, Setu was attacked. We prove this from a much-damaged inscription assigned to A.D. 1275 which informs us that Bellarasa Bammarasa's son Kālarasa "...Hearing that report the Mahāmandleśvara Ketarasa joined the Tulu camp (Tulu katakavam), and running about in the temple of Setu, was fighting, when Kalarasa, entering with his whole army, and attacking the men who were on foot, stopped them, knocked them down", but died nobly in the fight.2 If the Tulu camp is thus associated with

^{1.} E. C. VIII. Sa. 129, p. 118.

^{2.} Ibid, Nr. 26, p. 131. Kālarasa was a Kundanād and Kodanād chief mentioned in A.D. 1218. Ibid, Sa. 15, p. 94.

the temple of Setu, it may reasonably be assumed that Setu was within the influence of the Ālupa rulers whose direct dealings with the Hosagunda chieftains are unfortunately not discernible in the epigraphs.¹

11. THE HOYSALAS AND THE ALUPAS

The Ālupas, who had managed to preserve their integrity even under the Western Cālukyas, suffered great hardships, especially in the first quarter of the twelfth century A.D., when one of the most famous of Karnāṭaka sovereigns sweept over the land in a series of brilliant campaigns. Yet when the Hoysalas were but a rising family, struggling against the designs of an unknown enemy, they seem to have found a home in Tuluva. This accounts for the tradition according to which Vinayāditya Tribhuvanamalla Poysala Deva, whose earliest date is A.D.1047, retired to Tuluva for some unknown reasons. If this tradition is accepted, the event may be said to have happened before Bankideva Ālupendradeva I's accession to the throne.

That the Alupas continued unmolested in the reign of Vinayāditya Deva's eldest son and successor Ballāļa Deva I is proved by an inscription dated A.D. 1101, and again by another record of A.D. 1104, both of which narrate that the boundaries of the Hoysala kingdom were

^{1.} On Setu, read, E. C. VII. Hl. 54 dated A.D. 1254, p. 171, where Babbara Bāba figures; E. C. VIII. Intr. p. 11; Nr. 9, 11, 12, 19 ranging from A.D. 1278 to 1320, pp. 127-129.

^{. . 2.} Wilson, Mack. Coll. I. p. cix; Rice, Mys. Gaz. II. p. 207 (1st ed.).

the same as those under Vinayāditya Deva, viz., Āļvakheḍa, Bayalnāḍ, Talakāḍ, and Sāvimale.

But the good relations which existed between the Ālupas and the Hoysalas till the days of Ballāļa Deva I were disturbed by an incident which we have already mentionee in an earlier context. This is the attack which the Sāntara chief Jagadeva made on Dorasamudra and his subsequent defeat and retreat. Jagadeva was repulsed by all the brothers—Ballāļa Deva I, Biṭṭi Deva, the future Viṣṇuvardhana, and Udayādityarasa. The Sāntara chief, who had dared thus to attack the Hoysala capital, had gone to Tuluva, given one of his near relatives in marriage to the Ālupa king Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva I, and had founded a principality at Setu probably with the aid of the Ālupa king.

There was another cause of enmity between the Hoysalas and the Ālupas. The latter had always sided with the Western Cālukya feudatory (the Santara chief mentioned above) in Tuluva. The Hoysalas, who had acknowledge the suzerainty of the Western Cālukyas till the days of Viṣṇuvardhana Deva, had shaken it off under him.³ The subversion of the Ālupas, who had been on

^{1.} E. C. V. Intr. p. xii; Bl. 199, p. 108; E.C. VI. Cm. 160, p. 56. An undated inscription records a grant by Boppa Deva, the general of Viṣṇuvardhana Hoysala Deva. It narrates that Viṣṇuvardhana's father Tribhuvanamalla Ganga reigned over the whole territory bounded by Konkan, Alvakheda, Bayalnād, and Sāvimale, punishing the wicked and protecting the good. My. Arch. Rept. for 1925, p. 40. This does not refer to Viṣṇuvardhana's father Ereyanga, who never had the title of Tribhuvanamalla Ganga, but to Vinayāditya. B. A. S.

^{2.} Rice, Mys. & Coorg. p. 99; Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dts. p. 66.

^{3.} Rice, Mys. & Coorg. p. 96.

friendly terms with the Western Calukyas for quite a long time, was but one step in the imperial scheme of the Hoysalas.

Add to these there was another grave reason why the Hoysalas turned their mind towards the Alupas. The people of Alvakheda caused havoc in territories within the jurisdiction of the Hoysalas. This is gathered from a record dated A.D. 1114 which informs us that when Visnuvardhana Deva was ruling the Gangavādi Ninety-Six Thousand, and.....Setti Gāyunda was holding the office of gavunda in Karividi Hirur, the Alvakheda people took prisoners in the Thousand (the name of which is not specified). At this Setti Gavunda fought with the people of Alvakheda with daggers in front of Iavisingādu. He recovered the cows by the might of his arm, fought the Alupa people who had committed the cattle raid, but died in the attempt. This cattle raid must have precipitated the Hoysala advance into Tuluva.

Finally, there was the fact that the Hoysala themselves were of an inferior stock. They were essentially of Malepa origin, while the Ālupas were a family of considerable antiquity. It was but natural that the new dynasty should have evinced a desire to subvert a more ancient family, especially when the latter were hindering their expansion in the south-west of the Karnātaka.

^{1.} E.C. XII. Tp. 81, p. 59.

^{2.} Saletore, The Wild Tribes, p. 79 seq.

Visnuvardhana took the initiative. He first turned his attention to the Santara chief Jagadeva, and then to the Alupa king who had given shelter to the Santara enemy. The subversion of the Alupa kingdom was such an important political achievement that it was remembered with pride for ninety-four years (A.D. 1117 till A.D. 1208). Indeed, for over three generations very few accounts of the military prowess of Visnuvardhana Deva were emboided in epigraphs without mention being made of the conquest of Tuluva.

The subjugation of the Santara chief Jagadeva, therefore, was but the prelude to the Hoysala scheme of aggrandizement in Tuluva. The following will prove that Viṣṇuvardhana Deva first broke Jagadeva and then turned his attention to the latter's ally and relative the Ālupa king Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva. At first only the subjugation of the Santara chief is mentioned in epigraphs. But in a particular year the Tulu kings are said to have been subdued. And in the inscriptions of the succeeding years, the whole of the Tulu country is described to have been conquered by Viṣṇuvardhana Deva.

The fact that Visnuvardhana broke the power of the Santara chief Jagadeva is proved by a copper-plate inscription dated A.D. 1117 which describes, among other military achievements of the great Hoysala soldier, the following:— that he was a Bhairava in destroying the armies of Jagadeva (Jagat-deva bala vilaya Bhairavanum). The statement which precedes this, viz., that

Viṣṇuvardhana Deva was an adept at the game of war in overthrowing the Tulu kings (Tulu nṛpāla hṛdaya vidalana prakaṭa raṇa kaliyum) is to be understood in the sense that the above-mentioned chief Jagadeva was assisted by the Tulu (i.e., Ālupa) king, who must have already strengthened his Sāntara alliance prior to the event in question. Only in this way can we understand the term "armies" of Jagadeva referred to in the record.¹

There is another consideration which justifies our assumption relating to the overthrow of the Tuļu kings and to the armies of Jagadeva given above. This can be best understood by discussing the date of the subjugation of Jagadeva by Viṣṇuvardhana Deva. We place this event after A.D. 1117 according to the following considerations.

Vīra Jagadeva's attack on Dorasumdra took place in A.D. 1104. The Ālupa people committed havoc in the Hoysala territory in A.D. 1114 when the Sāntara chief had visited Bārakūru and given a grant of land to a temple in that city. That Viṣṇuvardhana Deva could not have undertaken the subjugation of Jagadeva till A.D. 1116 is clear from the trend of events in the Hoysala capital. There that ruler, who seems to have ascended the throne in about A.D. 1104, was being con-

^{1.} My. Ins. p. 263. Rice correctly states in his Intr. that Visnuvardhana subdued the Kadamba king Jayakesin, and then Jagadeva who is described in his record, as ruling in Tuluva. Intr. p. lxxvii. By Tuluva is here meant the territory round Setu. B. A. S.

verted from Jainism into Vaisnavism under the influence of the great reformer Rāmānujācārya. Indeed, it was only in A.D. 1116, as Rice rightly remarks, that Visnuvardhana Deva entered on a series of brilliant campaigns beginning with the conquest of Talakād (A.D. 1116).

It was in the year A.D. 1117 that Viṣṇuvardhana Deva overcame the Sāntara chief Jagadeva, for in the list of the conquests of his great general Punisa, who had conquered the Nīlādri and Maleyāļa, as given in a record dated A.D. 1117, no mention is made of Tuluva. Yet we presume that it was in the same year that the Hoysala monarch overthrew Jagadeva and his ally the Ālupa ruler. For in a record dated in that year (A.D. 1117) the glory of the Hoysala monarch is sung, and it is related that bursting the heart of the Tulu kings in the game of war, he swept over other regions in a career of conquests. 3

Now, when was the subjugation of the Ālupa king Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva effected, and who was the Hoysala general who is credited with the conquest of the Tulu country? Since Jagadeva's subjugation is to be placed in A.D. 1117, we have to presume that the overthrow of the Ālupa ruler followed in the same year or immediately afterwards. That Viṣṇuvardhana Deva subdued that Ālupa ruler will be proved from a later

^{1.} Rice, Mys. & Coorg. p. 99.

^{2.} E. C. IV. Ch. 83, p. 10.

^{3.} Ibid, V. Bl. 58, pp. 56-57. Cf. My. Ins., p. 263, op. cit.

record dated A.D. 1162 of the times of Narasimha Deva I which describes graphically the conquests of his great father. We believe that the subjugation of the Alupa ruler was effected between the year A.D. 1117 and A.D. 1120 on the strength of the epigraphs which mention the conquests of the Tulu country by Visnuvardhana Deva. Thus, an inscription dated about A.D. 1120 informs us that that Hoysala monarch "took by the might of his arm the Tulu country". In the same inscription he is styled "a submarine fire to the ocean the Tuluva forces". Another inscription assigned to about A.D. 1125 relates that Visnuvardhana Deva took the Tulu country (Tuludesam) among other countries. In A.D. 1131 the Hoysala monarch is called "a dragger along of the Tuluvas." An epigraph dated A.D. 1133 informs us that he brought into subjection the whole of the Male and the whole of the Tulu country.4 In a record of the next year (A.D. 1134) he is called "The capturer with a frown of the Tulu country." 5

Inspite of the statements made in some of the above inscriptions that the great Hoysala monarch had captured the whole of the Tulu country, it is permissible to assume that he did not annihilate the Ālupa power. This is attested to by the following considerations:—

^{1.} E.C. XI. Tp. 58, p. 54.

^{2.} Ibid, IV. Ng. 28, p. 117.

^{3.} Ibid, II. No. 53, p. 131 (1st ed.).

^{4.} Ibid, V. Bl. 124, p. 81.

^{5.} Ibid, XII. Gb. 34, p. 24.

Firstly, in some of the inscriptions of Viṣṇuvardhana Deva himself, Tuluva is not included in the list of the conquests made by that monarch.

Secondly, one inscription specifically states that he captured only as far as Bārakūru, while the others give the Bārakanūru Ghat (i.e., Bārakūru itself) as the western boundry of his empire.

And, thirdly, the inscriptions of his son and successor Narasimha Deva I speak of Āļvakheḍa as the western boundry of the Hoysala empire. Moreover, a Hoysala general had to be sent again to check the growth of the Ālupas in the reign of that same monarch.

In one record dated about A.D. 1120, and in others dated A.D. 1135, A.D. 1139 and A.D. 1141, Tuluva is not included in the list of countries conquered by Viṣnuvardhana Deva. These epigraphs belong to his reign, and their evidence, therefore, cannot be doubted. Even in a later record dated A.D. 1160, which recounts all his conquests, no mention is made of Viṣnuvardhana Deva's having conquered Tuluva. We may cite here a later record dated A.D. 1170 of the reign of Narasimha Deva I which does not add Tuluva in the list of Viṣnuvardhana Deva's conquests. The statement made in another epigraph of the same Hoysala ruler Narasimha Deva to the effect that Alva sank down before Viṣnuvardhana Deva, as will be mentioned presently, only serves to

^{1.} E.C. III. Sr. 43, p. 15; II. No. 56, p. 143, No. 144, p. 187 (1st ed.); VI. Kp. 80, p. 15, Kd. 96, p. 17.

^{2.} Ibid, VI. Kd. 67, pp. 12-13.

^{3.} Ibid, Kd. 30, p. 6.

strengthen our assumption concerning the integrity of the Alupa kingdom.

Two records which also belong to Viṣṇuvardhana Deva's reign, dated A.D. 1129 and A.D.1140 respectively, inform us that the Bārakanūru Ghat was the western boundry of the Hoysala empire. An inscription dated A.D. 1141, which was the last year of Viṣṇuvardhana Deva, clearly tells us that the strong-armed Hoysala Deva (i. e., Viṣṇuvardhana) conquered (only) as far as Bārakanūru on the west ([paduva] lu Bārakanūru mutte).

The name of the general who brought Tuļuva under the Hoysala power is now to be found out. It is not disclosed in any of the inscriptions of Viṣṇuvardhana Deva himself. But an inscription of Ballāļa Deva II dated A.D. 1183 informs us that Boppa Daṇḍādhipati having brought the Malenāḍ, the Tuļunāḍ, the beautiful Coļamaṇḍala, and the territory up to the Peddore as the northern boundry into subjection to the king Viṣṇu, acquired the name of drōharagharaṭṭa (A Grind stone to Traitors), because of the might of his arms with which he slew those who attacked him in the battle.³

That Alvakheda remained in tact inspite of the glorious military achievements of the Hoysala monarch

^{1.} E. C. Mg. 22, p. 62, Kd. 79, p. 15.

^{2.} Ibid, VI. Kd. 102, p. 19.

^{3.} *Ibid*, V. Bl. 137, p. 91. An inscription dated A.D. 1136 (of the times of Narasimha Deva?) relates that Ballāļa Camūpa (also called Ballu and Valļu) caused the Cola country to tremble, and took tribute from Tuļuvalapura. *E. C.* VI. Kd. 35, p. 7. Tuļuvalapura does not refer to Tuluva here. B. A. S.

and his able general is proved by the inscriptions of the ruler who succeeded Visnuvardhana Deva, and by the fact that another Hoysala general was sent against the Alupas in A.D. 1155. One of the boundries of the kingdom of Narasimha Deva, as given in an inscription dated A.D. 1143, was Alvakheda in the west. The reason why Narasimha Deva sent one of his generals against the Tuluva ruler is to be found in the repeated attempts which the Alupa king Bhujabala Kavi Alupendradeva I made to assert his independence. An inscription dated A.D. 1155 relates that Cokimayya, also called Bokimayva and Bokana, who was the great minister and general, and senior master of the robes, brought into subjection the Tulu country. Bokana was like a mirror to the goddess of victory in all the earth.2 The recrudescence of the Alupa danger in the reign of Narasimha Deva I and the consequent succeess which his great general won over the Alupas was perhaps the reason why in about A.D. 1160, and again A.D. 1163, that Hoysala ruler is called "a submarine fire to the ocean the Tuluva forces". 3

We may cite here a few instances of the popularity of the conquest of Tuluva by Viṣṇuvardhana Deva in the reign of his son Narasimha Deva I. An inscription dated A.D. 1160 narrates that "the door of the Ghats was closed" by king Viṣṇu. The reference here is

^{1.} E. C. V. Ak. 55, p. 130.

^{2.} Ibid, Hn. 69, p. 21.

^{3.} Ibid, II. No. 137 (a), p. 181, (1st ed.); XII, Tp, 66, p. 56.

^{4.} Ibid, II. No. 138, p. 183, (1st ed.).

obviously to the extension of the Hoysala arms to the Bārakanūru Ghat. The valiant Viṣṇuvardhana Deva took with a frown (bhrūbhangadim) the Tulu country along with Cakragotta and other centres. So is related in another record of Narasimha Deva dated A.D. 1162.¹

The same inscription graphically describes the conquests of Viṣṇuvardhana Deva and proves our assertion that he had only vanquished the Ālupa ruler. It describes how when he sounded the war drums, Cera's chest split open like a door broken into two, Āndhra's stoutness was reduced by the beating of himself, and Ālva sank (Ceram-ede-havane pāridud Āndhran ubbegam baḍutave kandidam kusidan Ālvaran ālisi poyva bhēriyam).² This epigraph conclusively shows that the Ālupa king was neither killed nor driven to the forest, but that he merely submitted to the Hoysala monarch.

Another inscription dated A.D. 1162 speaks of Nṛpa Kāma Hoysala's son capturing Tulunādu. As Rice has shown, the reference here is to Viṣṇuvardhnana Deva himself.³

It is interesting to observe here that the memory of Narasimha Deva was perpetuated in Tuluva by the construction of a well known fort and town. This was the famous Jamālābād fort (twenty miles east of Mangalore) of the eighteenth century. Concerning its early history Buchanan noted the following:— That

^{1-2.} E. C. IV. Hs. 137, p. 96, text p. 270,

^{3.} Ibid, V. Intr. pp. x-xi; Ak. 142, p. 176.





The Būdu of the Edambūru Ballāja Photo by B. A. S.] [Copyright

P. 565



The graves of Köji and Cennaya at Edambūru Photo by B. A. S.] [Copyright

according to the tradition of locality (at Jamālābād), a Brahman named Narasinga Rāya, the founder of a dynasty which governed the whole of Tuluva immediately after that of Mayūravarmā became extinct, built a town on the banks of the river here, and called it Narasinga Angadi after his own name. Towards the foot of the rock, at present occupied by the fortress, he erected a citadel and this was the residence of the family of which Buchanan found no traces in any other place.¹

Narasimha Deva's son by Mahā Devī was Ballāļa Deva II, who proved to be a second Viṣṇuvardhana. Even in the reign of his father, Ballāļa, then known by the name Balļu, is credited with a victory over Tuluva. The inscription records that Tuluva losing his power ran away (Tuluvam alavigett-ōdidan). In the same epigraph the title "submarine fire to the Tuluva army" is given to Ballāļa. In A.D. 1173 the inscriptions merely repeat the great deeds of Viṣṇuvardhana Deva concerning Tuluva, and have nothing to say concerning Ballāļa Deva's relations with that province. Then, again, in A.D. 1174, the same is repeated but this record adds that when Ballāļa mounted his horse for his expedition of victory, Tuluva losing his confidence ran away.

^{1.} Buchanan, A Journey, III. p. 68. Later tradition evidently made the Hoysala Narasimha a Brahman. But the Hoysalas were never Brahmans. For a description of the fort at Jamālābād, read Sturrock, S. C. Manual, I. p. 79, n. (12). B. A. S.

^{2.} E. C. IV. Ng. 30, pp. 119, 339.

^{3.} Ibid, VI. Kd. 4, p. 2; Kd. 136, p. 26.

^{4.} Ibid, V. Ak. 138, p. 173.

But in the list of conquests given in the next year (A.D. 1175) no mention is made of Tuluva.¹ Viṣṇuvardhana Deva's prowess relating to Tuluva is sung in A.D. 1178, A.D. 1179, and in about A.D. 1180.²

Notwithstanding the few notices relating to Ballāļa Deva's campaign against Tuļuva, we may presume that he left Āļvakheḍa intact under the Ālupa ruler Bhujabala Kulaśekhara Ālupendradeva I. It is true that in a record assigned to circa A.D. 1178 Ballāļa Deva is said to have covered up with smoke Pānugal and the mountainous Āļvakheḍa.³ And again in A.D. 1182 he is called by the phrase "submarine fire to the ocean Tuļuva." But the fact of Bārakanūru having been the western boundary of Ballāļa Deva's empire on the west, as recorded in an epigraph dated A.D. 1178, and confirmed by another inscription of A.D. 1184, clearly demonstrates that the Ālupas continued undistributed in their kingdom. It is possible that at the end of Hoysala campaign about which we do not know anything for the

^{1.} E. C. III. My. 8, p. 1.

^{2.} Ibid, IV. Ng. 70, p. 130; Ng. 15, p. 115; VII. Sh. 40, p. 18. This last epigraph dated in about A.D. 1180, deserves a passing note. When Rice at first included Tuluva-Rājendrapuram among the conquests of Visnuvardhana Deva, he assigned the inscription to about A.D. 1160 E. C. III. Sr. 74, p. 25. But another version of the same fact clearly says that Tuluva and Rājendrapuram were captured. This inscription is assigned to about A.D. 1180. E. C. VII. Sh. 40; p. 18. B. A. S.

^{3.} Ibid, V. Cn. 220, p. 220.

^{4.} Ibid, II. No. 124, p. 174. (1st ed.).

^{5.} Ibid, VI. Cm. 21-22, p. 37-8; ibid, IV. Ng. 32, p. 120. This latter record deals with Vinayāditya Hoysala, and sings also Visnuvardhana Deva's praise.

present, the Alupa ruler was merely made to pay tribute to the Hoysala monarch. The records of the reign of Ballāla Deva II ranging from A.D. 1190 to A.D. 1208 ascribe to him the honour given to him in A.D.1164, viz.; that on his mounting his horse for war, Tuluva, disgracing his power, ran away (Tuluvan alavigett ōdidan), and repeat the eulogy bestowed on Visnuvardhana Deva when the latter had subdued Tuluva. Tuluva is not mentioned in the list of conquests given in epigraphs dated A.D. 1193 and in about A.D. 1194.

In the same year (A.D. 1194), however, the Ālupas caused a disturbance in the Hoysala territory. The inscription which describes this informs us that "along with Āļuva Nāyaka, putting a stop to the riot, Jatanayya son of Jakka Gauḍa, son of Eca Gauḍa of Beratiyakere, fought in Musuvana-kaṭṭa" and died.³ The result of this raid is unknown. But in A.D. 1196 the traditional biruda "a submarine fire to the ocean the Tuļuva army" is given to Ballāļa Deva II.⁴

A further proof of the existence of the Ālupas as a power in the reign of the next Hoysala king Narasimha Deva II is given in a record of A.D. 1278 which makes Āļvakheḍa the western boundary of the Hoysala empire.⁵

^{1.} E.C. IV. Ng. 93, p. 137; VI. Kd. 77, p. 14; XII. Tp. 128, p. 67. VI. Kd. 117, p. 21.

^{2.} Ibid, VII. Sk. 105, p. 77, III. Sr. 44, p. 10. The latter is dated by Rice in A.D. 1195. In view of the troubles in A.D. 1194 or thereabouts, it may not be wrong to date it in that year. B. A. S.

^{3.} Ibid, VI. Kd. 81, p. 15.

^{4.} Ibid, II. No. 130, p. 177. (1st ed.).

^{5.} Ibid, V. Cn. 204, p. 213.

A critical stage in the history of the Alupas is reached with the accession of the last great Hoysala monarch, Vīra Ballāla Deva III. Seven stone inscriptions of this monarch and of his chief queen have been found in Tuluva itself, while four more concerning his dealings with this province have been found on the Ghats. Before we proceed to deal with these eleven epigraphs, we may observe that Vīra Ballāla Deva III's interference in Tuluva affairs was not altogether unjustifiable. The Hosagunda rulers, as we have already described above, were playing the part of king-makers; and they were the feudatories of the Yadavas (Seunas) who were the traditional enemies of the Hoysalas. The Yadava advance to the south could be checked only when their powerful feudatories, the Hosagunda chieftains, were thwarted in their designs. And this could be successfully done by controlling the affairs in Tuluva and establishing the Hoysala authority in that province on a firm basis. This explains the gradual disappearance of the Alupas and the absorption of their principalitty first in the Hoysala empire, and then, in that of their successors, the Vijayanagara monarchs.

The seven stone inscriptions found in Tuluva proper, dealing with Vīra Ballāļa Deva III, are the following:— the Mūdubidre Guru basti stone inscription; the Kānteśvara temple stone inscription, both in the Kārkaļa taluka; two stone inscriptions found in the Mahiśāsuramardhini temple at Nīlāvara in the Udipi tāluka; the Someśvara temple stone inscription dis-

covered at Mūdukēri in Bārakūru; the stone epigraph found in Bailūru in the Udipi tāluka: and the Gubbukōne Gopālakṛṣna temple stone inscription found at Kanyāṇa, Kundāpūru tāluka.

Of these the Mūḍubidre Guru basti stone inscription is important from the Hoysala point of view. For in this record the future Vīra Ballāļa Deva is associated with the town of Mūḍubidre. The inscription narrates, among other things, that Śrī Vīra Ballāļa Deva was ruling the kingdom of the world (S'rī-Vīra Ballāļa Devarugaļu pṛthuvī-rājyam-geyyutt-irdda). He is mentioned as the son of Śrī Vīra Narasimha Adhīndra Deva (Narasimha Deva III), who is given the following birudas-śrī-Mañjunātha-dēvara dibya-śrī-pāda-padma-ārādhakaram para-baļa-sādhakarum appa śrīmat Pāṇḍya-cakravartin Basava S'ankara-rāya-gajānkuśa huli-rāya gaṇḍa-bhēruṇḍa śrīmat pratāpa-cakravarti Hoyisaṇa śrī-Vīra Narasimhādīndra.

We may observe here that of these titles $P\bar{a}ndya$ cakravartin is the same biruda which Bankideva Ālupendradeva had assumed in A.D. 1302, while $P\bar{a}ndya$ -cakravartin arirāya-Basava-S'ankara had been borne by Soyideva Ālupendradeva in A.D. 1315, and again in A.D. 1324. Gopīśvara Rāya had borne the biruda of arirāya-Basava-S'ankara in A.D. 1332, while Vīra Pāndyadeva in A.D. 1346 had also the same biruda in addition to his other birudas Pāndya-cakravartin arirāya gajānkuśa. The biruda Pāndya-cakravartin alone may be said to have been the legitimate title of the Ālupas. As to how the titles arirāya-Basava-S'ankara and arirāya-Gajānkuśa came to

be assumed by them, and how these two titles came to be borne by the Hoysala prince Ballala cannot be made out for the present.

The Mūdubidre stone inscription is dated only in the cyclic year Vis(s)u and the 15th Thursday. The cyclic year Vrsa agrees with Saka 1203, and the date corresponds to Thursday the 9th January A.D. 1281.

Since Vīra Ballāļa is represented as ruling the kingdom of the world, and since the record was found at Mūdubidre, it may reasonably be inferred that prince Ballāļa in A.D. 1281 was placed by his father Vīra Narasimha Deva III as viceroy over Tuļuva with his headquarters at Mūdubidre. Ten years before Vīra Ballāļa Deva came to the throne, therefore, he had seen State service in Tuļuva.

The Mūdubidre record gives us the following information:—Hariyapa Daṇṇāyaka, the brother-in-law of Devapa Daṇṇākaya Mādaḍharu, son of Hosabaḍaharu, Adhikāri Deva Āļuva, Salikeyara, Ballāļas, eight respectable Seṭṭis (or heads of the commercial guilds) of Mūdubidre, and others, having decided among themselves (tammol-ēkastar āgi), caused a decree to be signed which we have already noticed in the previous pages of this treatise.²

^{1.} Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem. IV. p. 164.

^{2. 43} of 1901, S. I. I., VII. No. 213, pp. 108-9, op. cit. Supra Ch. III. Sec. 10, C. Dr. Venkata Ramanayya asserts that Vīra Baļlāļa III in A.D. 1297 conquered "one of the numerous Aļupa Chiefs that were ruling on the west coast" about this time. Vijayanagara-The Origin of the City and the Empire, p. 67, and ibid, n. (1). (Madras, 1933): The reference given is to E. C. IV. Ng. 95 and Mys. Arch.

Here we have to relate the events which happened in A.D. 1300 and after, since they will explain Vira Ballala Deva's attitude towards Tuluva. A stone inscription found at Baradavali, Sagar taluka, and dated A.D. 1300. narrates that Vira Ballala Deva having taken Hosagunda, captured Kōti Nāyaka and carried off his elephant, marched in the next year against Gangeva Sāhani, and encamped at Śirśi. He then plundered Kadabalalu. This seems to have led to a coalition of the Kadamba Cakravartin (Kāva Deva?) and the Cālukva Cakravartin, whose praise is given. Jagadalāla Gangeva Sāhani, the great minister of Kāva Deva, however, sent for the "brave lion" Madi Gauda, who pierced the horse of the enemy, destroyed them and "broke Ballala Deva's army" but died in the encounter.1 Vīra Ballāļa Deva, therefore, failed in this attempt to crush the Hosagunda rulers, who were the traditional enemies of the Hovsalas.

He made another attempt in A.D. 1303 to subvert them. In that year he is represented as marching with his whole army and encamping at Banavase. This time, too, he took the field against "the world-renowned Gangeya Sāhaṇi". The inscription discovered at

Rept. for 1918, p. 47. But the former reference is wrong, for Ng. 95 is an undated inscription assigned by Rice to circa A.D. 1142. It records merely the construction of a Jinalaya by a citizen. E. C. IV. p. 138. There were never "numerous Alupa Chiefs" on the western coast. Evidently Dr. Ramanayya confounds the Alupas of Tuluva with the "numerous" chiefs who bore a similar name but on the Western Ghats! B. A. S.

^{1.} E. C. VIII. Sa. 45, p. 98.

Rāvaṇakān, Sāgar tāluka, records the battle of Sirise (Śirśi) in the Kadambalaligenād, and the heroic deeds of Rāṇavagga Bīra. Vīra Ballāla Deva evidently was successful in this encounter.¹

The two campaigns at Sirśi had grave effects on the history of Tuluva. Sirśi in those ages belonged to Tuluva. That the Tuluvas were in some way implicated in the affairs that led to the two encounters at Sirśi there cannot be any doubt. Indeed, the following epigraph dated A.D. 1319 January, Tuesday the 2nd,—sixteen years after the second battle at Sirśi,—clearly suggests that the Tuluvas had invited disaster on themselves. For this stone epigraph found at Hanagavādi, Honnāļi tāluka, gives an account of the measures which Vīra Ballāļa Deva's generals took to assert the Hoysala authority in Tuluva.

The cause of the trouble was following: a leader called Basava Deva of Candāvuru below the Ghats (i.e., in Tuļuva) had rebelled against the Hoysalas for some unknown reasons. At this Sankiya Sāhaṇi, the brotherin-law of the senior house (palace) minister (hiriya maneya pradhāni) Baiceya Daṇṇāyaka, was directed to march against Basava Deva. Candavūru was destroyed, and Sankiya Sāhaṇi proceeded against Muṭla.....which he besieged. In the battle of the Ghats, as it is called in the record, the Tuļavas were destroyed. The most

^{1.} E. C., Sa. 101, p. 110. A record dated A.D. 1317 informs us that Vīra Ballāļa Deva gave a grant to some one. It mentions Gangeya Dannāyaka as the son of Aļuva Dannāyaka, one of the royal Dandanāthas of the court. E. C. IX., Ma. 59, p. 58. B. A. S.

remarkable incident in the battle, it may be observed, was the heroism of *Mahāsāmanta Sāmantādhipati* Sangiya Nāyaka, who died in the battle.¹

The other inscriptions found in Tuluva are also to be referred to the reign of the same Hoysala monarch. The first of these was found in the Mahiśāsuramardhini temple at Nīlāvara in the Uḍipi tāluka. It is dateđ Saka 1255, Āngirasa, Phālguna, Ba. 10, Mīna, 16, Thursday which corresponds to A.D. 1333, March the 11th Thursday. The inscription records a gift of lands in Niruvāra (i.e., Nīlāvara) by the fourteen members of the assembly of the village to the temple of Durgā Bhagavatī. The gift was made with the permission of Vayijapa Daṇṇāyaka and other officers and in the presence of the chief queen Cikkāyi Tāyigaļu.²

Another record also discovered in the same temple but dated Saka 1257, Bhāva, Dhanus, 2(8), Vaḍḍavāra which corresponds to A.D. 1334, December the 24th Saturday, gives the name of the queen as Bukkāyi Tāyi. The village (assembly) of Niruvāra (seems to have made a similar gift).³

^{1.} E.C. VII. Hl. 117, pp. 178, 423. The date given is Sakavaruśa 1248 neya Kāļāyukta Samvatsarada Su. 10 Sōmavāra. But the cyclic year for Saka 1248 was Ksaya, while for Saka 1240 it was Kāļāyukta. The date intended was probably A.D. 1319 January the 2nd Tuesday, the week day not corresponding. Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem. IV. p. 240.

^{2. 492} of 1928-29; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, p. 54. (Saka 1255 = Srimukha; Saka 1254 = Angirasa). But Phālguna Bahula 10 = March the 12th Friday. Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem. IV. p. 268.

^{3. 493} of 1928-9; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, p. 54.

But the correct name of the chief queen of Vīra Ballāļa Deva was Kṛṣṇāyi Tāyi. This is gathered from a stone inscription found in the Someśvara temple at Mūdukēri in Bārakūru. It styles her as the senior crowned queen (pattada piri-arasi K[r]i[ṣṇ]āyi Tāyi). The Mahāpradhāna Vayijapa Daṇṇāyaka during the ministership (pradhānikeyalu) of Ajjaṇṇa Sāhaṇi, in the presence of the senior crowned queen Kṛṣṇāyi Tāyi, made some (specified) endowment for the customary procedure of the god Somanātha (Somanātha dēvara bēhara naḍavaḍe). The co-operation of the three Settis or the heads of the commercial guilds of the three streets of Bārakūru (mūru kēriya mūvāru S'eṭṭikāraru), and of the 150 citizens and of others (?nūru aivattu eļame muntāgi) was also obtained while making the endowment.

The above inscription is dated S'aka varuṣa 1258 neya Dhātu samvatsarada Vaiṣākha S'uddha 1 Meṣa māsa 16 neya S'anivāradandu which works out correctly to A.D. 1336 April (Dhātri) the 13th Saturday.

The sixth stone inscription which falls within the reign of the Hoysala monarch Vīra Ballāla Deva III was found at Bailūru in the Udipi tāluka. It is dated Saka

^{1. 122} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 312, p. 163; Swamikannu, ibid, IV. p. 274. The opinion of Rangachari that the record of A.D. 1331 "Shows that the Alupas were overthrown by the Hoysalas in the government of the District" Top. List., II, p. 861) is erroneous. We have seen that epigraphical evidence proves that the Alupas continued to rule even under the Vijayanagara monarchs as feudatories till A.D. 1441! Neither the Hoysala nor the Vijayanagara rulers were indiscreet enough to overthrow an ancient family that had governed the district for centuries. B. A. S.

1257 (A.D. 1335-6), and it narrates that the queen Kikkāyi Tāyi granted the samudāya tax of the village of Bailūru (for the offerings of the god?) to Vāsudeva Mudali. The Mahāpradhāna Baicapa Dannāyaka and the nakhara hañjumāna or the corporate assembly of Bailūru are also mentioned in this record.¹

And yet another stone inscription of this queen has been found in Tuluva. It was discovered in the Gubbukōṇe Gopālakṛṣṇa temple at Kanyāṇa in the Kundāpūru tāluka. It is dated only in the cyclic year (Śarva) dhārin, Mithuna, Friday, which agrees with Śaka 1270 (A.D. 1348 June), the other detail being insufficient to verify the date. In this the ruler is given the following birudas:—Pāṇdya Cakravartin, arirāya-Basava S'aṅkara and rāya-gajāṅkuŝa. And the queen is represented as making a gift of land to Aṇṇa Hebbāruva.²

We may be permitted to refer here to the remarks of the Madras Government Epigraphist (Mr. K. V. Subrahmanya Aiyar) concerning this Kanyāna stone inscription. He writes thus:—"As the present inscription makes no mention of Vīra Ballāļa, while giving all the regal titles to his queen Kikkāyi, it must be understood that subsequent to his demise which is known to have taken place in a.D. 1342 (Rice, Mysore and Coorg., p. 108), his queen ascended the throne and was alive in the year Sarvadhārin which corresponds to Saka 1271, i. e., A.D. 1348. The same queen figures in an in-

^{1. 583} of 1929-30.

^{2. 360} of 1930-31,

A. K. 19

scription of Harihara II from Sringeri (Ep. Carn. Vi. Sg. 1) dated three years earlier than the above epigraph, viz., in Saka 1268, Pārthiva, with the same birudas and supplementing a grant of land made by the king to the teacher Bhārati Tīrtha, thus showing the subordinate position of the last Hoysala rulers to the rising Vijayanagara power.¹

The above form a string of blunders. It is incorrect to assert that consequent on the death of Vira Ballala Deva III his queen ascended the throne. For this violates all the known facts concerning that ruler and his son and successor Virūpāksa Ballāla IV. The latter came to the throne on the death of his father in A.D. 1343. Secondly, the cyclic year Sarvadharin given in the above Kanyana record agrees with Saka 1270 and not with Saka 1271 the cyclic year of which was Virodhin.3 Thirdly, it was not Harihara Raya II who made the gift to Bharati Tirtha Śripada, as recorded in the famous Śringeri matha inscription,—which we have referred to in this treatise-, but it was Harihara Odeya I who, along with his brothers, went to the Sringeri matha in A.D. 1346. Further, none of the inscriptions under review, including the one as Sringeri, gives the titles Pāndya cakravartin, etc. to the queen Kikkāyi Tāyi. They were assumed either by Vīra Ballāļa Deva III or by the Alupa ruler Vira Pandyadeva Alupendradeva II.

^{1.} Ep. Rep. of the S. Circle for 1930-31, p. 49.

^{2.} Saletore, S. P. Life. I. p. 7., and ibid, n. 6; 11, seq.

^{3.} Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem. IV. pp. 298-300.

The fact that no ruler is mentioned in the record from Kanyāṇa is significant: it shows us that on the death of Vīra Ballāļa III, his queen came to the court of her brother Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva Ālupendradeva II. We have seen elsewhere that Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva Ālupendradeva II lived till A.D. 1366. The Kanāyaṇa record, therefore, has to be assigned to his reign. And, finally, the last of the Hoysala kings were never subordinate to the rising Vijayanagara family.¹

A few observations may be made concerning the senior crowned queen Kṛṣṇāyi Tāyi. She figures in five inscriptions hailing from the Kundāpūru, Uḍipi and Kārkaļa tālukas. In all the five she is associated with the most prominent citizens who made gifts to temples in Tuluva. It is not improbable that the senior crowned queen was herself a Tuluva princess. This explains why she appears five times in the records of Tuluva.

A striking coincidence in support of our assumption is to be found in the fragmentary record already cited in the previous pages. This record dated A.D. 1346 was found in the Śringeri maṭha and it deals with the Ālupa king Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva. In this inscription the queen is called Śrī Kikkāi Tāyi. Evidently there is some error here: the name Kikkāyi Tāyi has been wrongly inserted for that of Kṛṣṇāyi Tāyi. But how the scribe came to mix up this name with that of Vīra Pāṇḍya

^{1.} For a further discussion on this subject, read, Saletore, ibid, p. 11 seq.; I. H. Q., VIII. pp. 294, seq.

deva, two of whose birudas-Pāṇdya-cakravartin and arirāya Basava S'aṅkara—were also borne by Vīra Ballāļa Deva III, cannot be made out, except on the supposition that queen Kṛṣṇāyi Tāyi was the sister of Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva. The fact of Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva's having made a grant to the same religious centre (Śringerī maṭha) in the very same year (A.D. 1346) when the five famous brothers, the founders of the empire of Vijayanagara, also had made a grant to the same institution, seems to point to the remarkable spirit of co-operation that prevailed amongst the new-comers and the Ālupas.¹

The battles of Śirśi and of the Ghāts led to a crisis in Tuļuva. This is proved by the personal visit which Vīra Ballāļa Deva paid to the general in Bārakūru in Śaka 1260 (A.D. 1338). The Someśvara temple epigraph found at Āladahaļļi, Arsiyakere tāluka, relates that when the monarch "paid a visit to the Bārakūru army, on his ordering Ańkeya Nāyaka, son of the great master of the robes Honneya Nāyaka of Bāgivāļa in Kumāravṛtti-ya Kūsu of the old Nirgundanād, saying— 'Remain in Bārakūru', he replied— 'I will stay, Sire' (iddhenu Jīyā!)! At which being pleased the monarch granted to him Āladahaļļi, a hamlet of Bāgivāļa, as a kodagi."'

^{1.} Dr. Venkata Ramanayya admits that Kikkāyi Tāyi was an Alupa by birth. But his statement that she bore the birudas Pāṇḍya-cakravartin, Basava-Śaṅkara, and rāyagajāṅkuśa (Vijayanagara—The Origin of the City and the Empire, p. 134) is incorrect. Queens never bore, except in one solitary instance of a Kākatīya princess, the birudas of men! B. A. S.

^{2.} E. C. V. Ak. 183, p. 185. Dr. Ramanayya has totally misunderstood the attitude of Vīra Ballāļa III towards Tuļuva. He main-

To this year A.D. 1338 is to be assigned the damaged and undated Kānteśvara temple stone inscription of the same Hoysala monarch. The following birudas are given to the ruler in this epigraph found in the Kārkaļa tāluka:—samasta bhuvana-vikhyāta, mahārājādhirāja, arirāya Basava-S'ankara, śrimat pratāpa cakravartin Hoysala Vīra Ballāļa Deva. The inscription contains the cyclic year Bahudhānya incorrectly written as ...madhyāna (Sam) vatsara. The contents of this record have already been discussed in an earlier connection.

The last of the Hoysala monarchs, therefore, took a personal interest in the Tuluva affairs. When we remember that his senior crowned queen was a Tuluva princess, this solicitude for the welfare of the province is not unintelligible. But nothing can be gathered from the epigraphs concerning the result of this royal visit to Bārakūru in A.D. 1338. To his successors—the rulers of Vijayanagara—, however, was transmitted an equally lively interest in the affairs of Tuluva. Strictly speaking this part of the narrative falls outside the scope of the present work. But so that we may note the position of the capital Bārakūru which Vīra Ballāla Deva visited, even after the advent of the Vijayanagara

tains that the Hoysala ruler went to Tuluva to meet "the only foe" he had on the western coast—Harihara Rāya I, one of the founders of Vijayanagara! Ramanayya, ibid, p. 134. This is mere imagination. B. A. S.

^{1. 57} A of 1901, S. I. I. VII. No. 232, p. 118, op. cit., Swami-kannu, Ind. Ephem., IV. pp. 28, 278.

monarchs, we may be permitted to review briefly the epigraphs which deal with this capital of the Ālupas.

The Vijayanagara viceroys continued to govern Tuluva from the same city of Bārakūru. This is proved by an inscription found in that city of the times of Harihara Rāya II, in which it is related that, while that monarch was in his nelevīdu of Dorasamudra (śrī-vīra Harihara Mahārāyaru Dorasamudrada nelevīdinolage), his viceroy, the servant at his feet, Mahāpradhāna Mallapa Odeyar was in the rājadhāni of Bārakūru governing the Tulu, Hayve, and Konkan kingdoms.

The date of the above record is given thus:—S'aka var(u)ṣa 130(9) sandu 10 neya Vartamāna (Prabhava) samvatsarada Āśādḥa S'udha 1 Sōmavara which corresponds to A.D. 1387 Monday the 17th June.

The importance of Bārakurū is apparent from a stone inscription found in a ruined basti leading to the Colikēri in Bārakūru. It is dated S'aka 1321 neya Varta-

^{1. 154} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 347, p. 203. Swamikannu, Ind. Eph., IV, p. 376. Here comes a figure which cannot be satisfactorily identified. A stone inscription found in Mīyāra in the Kārkaļa tāluka, mentions a Vīra Camņarasa. It records a sarvamānya gift of land by Kōti Setti alias Binnāṇi, and others, for offerings to the temple of Mahādeva at Mīyāra. The date of the record is given as Saka 1307 Krōdhana Kārtika 1, Sunday which works out correctly to A.D. 1385, October the 29th Sunday. (531 of 1927-8; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, p. 59). Who this Vīra Camṇarasa Odeya was, cannot be made out. Two copies of a copper-plate grant found in the Subrahmanya temple at Kukke in the Puttūru tāluka, represent Mādhava Rāya as lord of Gōvapura. His gifts to some Brahmans for the worship of the god Subrahmanya are recorded in the grant. The grant is dated Kali 4488, Saka 1309 (A.D. 1386), and contains many chronological details. 387 of 1927-8; 2 of 1928-9; Ep. Rept. for 1928-9, p. 82.

māna (Pramādi) samvatsara S'ravaņa S'u. 1 Friday which corresponds to A.D. 1399 July the 4th Friday.¹ It represents the Mahāpradhāna Nāgarasa Oḍeya in Bārakūru. That viceroy together with the sixteen śeṭṭis of the ten streets of Bārakūru (Bārakūru-hattu kēri hadināru mandi śeṭṭikāraru), the 770 eļemes or nobles (?ēļu-nūru-eppattu yeļeme-vōļagadavaru), the prominent citizens (?hañjamānada halaru), the sixty Ballāļas, the representatives of Mūdila Niḍambūru, the Nāḍavas, the Nāyakas of the four grāmas and of the four nāḍus (not named), and others, made a stone grant.²

^{1.} Swamikannu, Ind. Eph. IV. p. 401.

^{2. 154} C of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 350, p. 207. An inscription dated A.D. 1372 mentions the death of Aluva Mahāprabhu Tavanidhi Brahmā's wife Lakṣmī Bommakkā. Another record dated A.D. 1379 mentions the death of the Aluva Mahāprabhu Head Jewel of the (Araga) Bighteen Kampaṇa Tavanidhi Bamma (i.e., Brahmā) Gauḍa himself. E. C. VIII. Sb. 199, 196, pp. 31-32. Evidently the name Aluva was still held in high esteem outside Tuluva in the fourteenth century A.D. B. A. S.

CHAPTER IV

VILLAGE ORGANIZATION

Summary:—1. The story of Mayūravarmā according to Tuluva traditions as embodied in the Grāmapaddhati. 2. The division of the land into thirty-two grāmas. 3. The usage at Kōṭa and a picture of the General Assembly. 4. Punishments. 5. The origin of the story of Mayūravarmā. Its Buddhist source. The story outside Tuluva. The story in epigraphs and its popularity in the twelfth century A.D. 6. Historicity of the families mentioned in the Grāmapaddhati. 7. Criticism of the Grāmapaddhati. Its date. 8. The story of Bhūtāļa Pāṇdya. Three versions of the story. 9. Criticism of the story and the determination of the date of the introduction of the aliya santāna law: the aliya santāna law was legalized in Tuluva only in the fifteenth century.

THE STORY OF MAYÜRAVARMÄ

Tuluva tradition is embodied in a work called Grāmapaddhati and in folk-songs styled Pāḍadānas. Of these shall we deal here with the former. The Grāmapaddhati ascribes the division of the land into grāmas or villages to Mayūravarmā, and the introduction of the aliya santāna kaṭṭu, or the law of inheritance through the nephew, to Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya. The story concerning the remarkable figure of Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya generally follows that of Paraśurāma in most of the versions of the Grāmapaddhati. This work is, according to Tuluva notions, a part of Sahyādri-kāṇḍa of the Skanda Purāṇa. A minute examination of all the details given in the Grāmapaddhati which differs both in style and matter

in different parts of the district, is outside the limits of the present treatise. It is a work of considerable length with digressions which, although interesting, are beside our purpose. We shall, therefore, restrict ourselves to those few points in the *Grāmapaddhati* which are necessary for a proper understanding of the history of ancient Tuluva.

In most versions of the Gārmapaddhati Mayūravarmā is abruptly introduced many years after Paraśurāma. He is said to have belonged to the Solar race and to have been the son of Hemāngada and Suśīlā. One version says that Vasu, the father of Suśīlā, was the son of Kadamba who is said to be the son of Parameśvara and Pārvatī.¹

Other versions give an interesting but by no means convincing account of the origin of Mayūravarmā. These relate that king Maṇivarmā ruled over Banavasi, and that his sons were Kanakvarmā and Vīravarmā. Once king Śibi of the Pāṇḍyadeśa suddenly invaded Tuluva, and imprisoning Maṇivarmā ruled over the land. At this Maṇivarmā's queen fled with her two children to a town called Vārakūla (Bārakūru). Here they witnessed a strange phenomenon. On Hemāngada having died issueless, the royal elephant wandered over the streets with a garland in its trunk in search of a king. The two lads were surprised at this but were told by Ṣṣi Mārkaṇḍeya, who had made Bārakūru his abode, the following:—That the elephant

^{1.} The Puttige Version, Adhyaya 2, vv. 9-14.

would garland only those who belonged to the four varnāśramas, but not to those who professed the Jaina creed; that in the north-east of the city of Bārakūru there was a mango tree on which lived a peacock (mayūra) who was guarded by its old friend a black serpent; and that the elephant would select only him who could kill the peacock and drink its blood. On hearing this, Vīravarmā killed the peacock and was duly garlanded by the elephant.

He was then only fourteen years old. The people acclaimed him as Lokāditya Mayūravarmā. His spiritual adviser Ŗṣi Mārkaṇḍeya taught him how to govern, and particularly instructed him to win the sympathy of the Jainas who had become powerful in the land. It was also at the suggestion of the same ascetic that Lokāditya Mayūravarmā brought Brahmans from Ahicchatra.

This version next mentions particularly the following:—that Lokāditya Mayūravarmā lost the favour of his elder brother Kanakavarmā who, disgusted with Vīravarmā for having killed the peacock, left Bārakūru with an army and went to Banavasi which he conquered. Here Kanakavarmā ruled like a devout Jaina.

On Rṣi Mārkandeya telling Lokāditya Mayūravarmā that his land was unholy because there were no: Brahmans in it, the ruler went to Ahicchatra and brought

^{1.} This is known as pañcadivyādhivāsa which is mentioned in the Jātaka stories. For detailed references see Penzer's note on ibid, Kathāsaritsāgara, V pp. 175-77; VII. p. 218.

Brahman colonists. He stationed them in the following thirty-two grāmas;—

	No. of Grāmas				
Kadambakār	nana	•••	•••	•••	3
Gokarņa	•••	•••	•••	•••	4
Skandapura	2				
Gajapurī on	2				
Ajapurī	•••	•••	•••		. 4
Near Ananto	eśa	•••	•••		. 10
On the nort	. 7				
			Total		. 32

The Mangalore version adds here that Lokāditya Mayūravarmā after assigning the thirty-two grāmas to the Ahicchatra Brahmans, placed at their disposal Nāyar people from Malabar to aid them in the conduct of their agricultural operations.¹

^{1.} The Puttige version; The Mangalore version. Traces of the Nāyar settlements in Tuluva are still seen. There is a tank of the Nāyars called Nāyar-kere in the Kappettu-grāma of Udipi. The stones of this tank were removed to build the famous Madhvasarovara in the same town (of Udipi). In Nittūru in the same tāluka, about one hundred yards to the south of the Nittūru household, there is a Nāyara-matha. In Brahmāvūru in the same taluka are a few Nāyar families, ten in all; these are the Rokkenāyar, Eļenāyar, etc.

Mayūravarmā abdicated in order to do penance, as the whole world was pervaded by Kali. He left the kingdom and the little prince Candrāngada in the charge of the ministers, and retired to the forest. The Brahmans of the thirty-two grāmas met together and deliberated thus:— "This kingdom is now without a ruler, the ministers being all powerful. Let us return to the much-longed-for Ahicchatra." So saying they left Tuluva and went back to the land of their birth. And their servants, who are mentioned in Puttige version as the natives of Gorāstra, forsook their fields, and remained outside their villages.

2. DIVISION OF THE LAND IN TO THIRTY-TWO $GR\overline{A}MAS$

On his accession to the throne, Candrangada enquired after the Brahmans, who had been brought by his father Sikhivarma or Mayūravarma, and was told that they had left Tuluva for Ahicchatra. Candrangada himself went to Ahicchatra, and asked them why they had left his district (viṣaya), and assured them that he would redestribute the households and grāmas and grant

In Mülki in the Mangalore tāluka, is a Nāyar temple of the god Tisṭava. One species of land tenure in Tuluva noticed by Sir Thomas Munro is the Nāyar-gēṇi. This is specially found in and near Bārakūru. Munro reckoned this kind of tenure to be more secure than the śuddha-mūla-gēṇi or tenure by simple purchase. Read Selections from the Records of the Collectorate of South Canara, Letters of Sir Thomas Munro relating to the Revenue Administration of Canara. Among the Mundāla Holeyas of Tuluva is a song concerning the Nāyar people. Cf. Saletore, I. A., LVI, p. 76. B. A. S.

them the right of tonsure(grāmeşu grhabhedāni cūdām tathaiva-ca cihnnam karişyāmi). He then divided the grāmas and households in the following manner:-

The sixteen Western Grāmas	The sixteen Eastern <i>Grāmas</i>			
1. Kārevūru (Tārevūru) (4 households, according to the Puttige version; but 8 in other versions)	1. Śrīpādi (5 households)			
 Varkāḍi (Orkāḍi) (8 households) 	2. Vodila (Badilu, Codir) (2 households)			
3. Maraņe (2 households)	3. Nāļa (Nāla) (2 house- holds) (Omitted in the Puttige version)			
4. Kolavinādu (Koļanādu) (2 households)	4. Kārandūru (Kārandāru) (2 households)			
5. Pāḍi (4 households)	5. Ujjre (Ujjari) (16 house- holds in the Puttige version; 8 in other versions)			
6. Koḍila (Kūḍalu, Kuḍila) (4 households)	6. Kunyamārga (Kunni- mārga, Kuñjamārga (8 households)			
7. Magebailu (Mogebailu) (4 households)	7. Kokkaḍa (Kokkōḍu) (4 households)			
8. Nīrumārga (Nīrmārga) (6 households in the Puttige version; 8 in others)	8. Rāminjūru (Rāminja, Rājakunja) (2 house- holds in the Puttige version; 7 in other versions)			
9. Mittanādu (Mittunādu) (4 households)	9. Pude (4 households)			

- 10. Śrīmantūru (Sīmantūru)|10. Balapa (Belapa; but in (9 in the Puttige version; 8 in others)
- 11. Tenagale Tenakala) (4 households in the Puttige version; 8 in other versions)
- 12. Sivabelli (Sivabelki) (120 12. Idekedu (Idake) (6 househouseholds in the Puttige version; 6 in other versions)
- 13. Brahmapura (Ajapuri) 13. Kemiñie (Kemiñja) (1 (8 in the Puttige version; 4 in other versions)
- 14. Niruvāra (Nīlāvara) (8 14. Pālinje (Pādinje, Pāvinje) in the Puttige version; 4 in other versions)
- 15. Kūtaka (Kūta, Kūte) (8 | 15. Siriyādi (Siripādi in the households)
- Skandapura) (2 households)
- N.B.—The Puttige verwith 9 households.

- the Puttige version Ballamañie) (3 households)
- (Kenakala, 11. Ernādu (Puttige version gives it as Bainadu) (4 households)
 - holds)
 - household)
 - (2 households)
 - Puttige version) (5 households)
- 16. Talapādi (Kandāvara, 16. Kodipādi (7 in the Puttige version; 5 in other versions)
- N.B.—The Puttige version adds Omanjūru grāma sion omits the names of Nala grāma and Ernādu grāma.1

In the western grāmas there were 206 households; in the eastern 73 households; and between these two classifications there were 21 grāmas which belonged to

^{1.} The Puttige version, Ch. 30. Reference to Sahyadri-kanda. Ch. 30 is given here.

what were called the avantarabheda. This term was evidently given to the secondary households. Thus in all there were, according to the Puttige version, 300 households, and 326, according to the other versions.

These households were divided into the following sections:— those of the Agnihotris, the Smārtas, the Bhaṭṭas, the Tantris, the Paṇḍitas, the Pakṣanāthas, the Ballāļas, the Grāmaṇis, and the Adhivāsis. A detailed account of these will be given in the appendix.

Of the Mūla or original Brahmans, the *Grāmapaddhati* mentions the following:— Nāyaka, Kiņi, Poi, Prabhu, Bhakta, Bāļiga, Śyānubhoga, and Bhaṇḍāri, who are styled Brahmans of the Konkaṇadeśa.

The story of Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya is then narrated in most of the versions of the *Grāmapaddhati*, but is not to be found in the Puttige version.

The division of the land into grāmas together with the households was one feature of the village organization of ancient Tuluva. Another feature which may be noted is the prominence which was given to usage; while a third feature was the conduct of business in the General Assembly. The importance of usage is best seen in the history of Kōṭa grāma. It is true that some of the usages mentioned in the Grāmapaddhati have now become obsolete. But all the same it is interesting to observe that there were sixteen maryādegaļu or usages in Kōṭa. They were the following:—pakṣakavāṭa; bhāvige jōḍu kambha (double pillars for the well); nade-maḍi; nade-vādya; beļu-koḍe: (white umbrella), aidu-

mole dana (a cow with an udder that has five teats); haga-lu dīvaṭige (a torch by day-light); aṭṭa muridu bidda akki (rice that has fallen down from the ceiling); ilidu hōda heṇṇu (a girl who has passed puberty); katri vīlya (betel leaf offered with arms crossing each other, i.e., the right arm brought to the left side, the left, to the right); manege suttu pāgāru (a wall round the house): kauḍige mane (?); eḍa-muḍi (?); madana-kai (a crutch-like stand); and mukha-maṇṭapa (?).¹

The Puttige version, however, has the following to give concerning the sixteen maryādegaļu which it calls kaṭṭalegaļu:— aṭṭa-muridu, aimoleti, tappu gaṇṭi, kengoda, jōḍu mara kūpa, tulā śrankhala, gamana śringa vādya, naḍe-maḍi, dīvaṭige, pakṣakavāṭa, tōraṇa, dīpa-mālā-sthambha, dōļā mañca, eddu banda heṇṇu, raṭṇa kambaḷi, cchatra.²

Important centres were likewise established for other purposes. Thus Kāngōdu (Kāñjinōdu) and Kāsaragōdu were the kōdus; Kelavanādu (Kolanādu) and Nalvattanādu were the nādus; Baindūru (Baidūru) and Bhattakaļa were the bīdus; Kadari (Kadkari=Vitthaļa) and Kārkaļa were the divānas; Cittupādi and Nidambūru were the pakṣanāthas; the (capitals of the) Cauṭas and the Bangas were the dharma-sthānas; Bārakūru and Mangaļūru (Manga Kadamba) were the simhāsanas; Kadare (Kadri) and Kāntāvara were the hone-sthānas (i.e., the places where bail could be secured?); (the) Suktī and the Muktī were the gadis or the boundaries;

^{1.} The Mangalore version.

^{2.} The Puttige version.

the Sahyādri (also called in one version Simhādri) and the Śaradi (the western ocean) were the mēres or limits and Kōta and Ananteśvara were the centres of meeting.

But in the thirty-two grāmas the meeting place for both the Saivites and the Vaiṣṇavites was Kroḍamaṇḍala (i. e., Śankaranārāyaṇa in the Kundāpūru taluka). But in the Mangalore version, however, it is related that all questions concerning the śāstras, mantras, tantras, smṛtisāra, vedas, calumny, hypocrisy, prostitution, falsehood, dereliction of religious duties, etc., were to be settled in the kūṭa-sthaļas or centres of assembly obviously at Kōṭa and Ananteśvsra. Seven persons called smṛtikāras were appointed as judges to settle all cases in the thirty-two grāmas. They were Munnūrārya, Alevūrāya Uppāraṇa, Kallūrāya, Tāļetāya, Uḍupa and Mogerāya.¹

The same version then gives us interesting information about the manner in which a General Assembly (jagat-kūṭa) was summoned to hear an appeal against the unjust decision given by the following judges:—Aṇṇa Ugraṃbaḷḷi, Aṇṇa Ōraṃbaḷḷi, Aṇṇa Kuñja, Aṇṇa Mañjanōḍi, Aṇṇa Mittanōḍi, Aṇṇa Kāranta and Aṇṇa Hēraḷa. In the General Assembly the representatives of the two grāmas were to take their seat in the following manner:—The representatives of the eastern grāmas were to face westwards and station themselves in two rows of eight each with two Ballāḷas on either side, the Paṇḍits on the right side, and the Sabhāpatis on the

^{1.} Cf. Hegde, Carite, pp. 96-97. The last name Mogeraya is omitted in the Mangalore version but mentioned by Hegde.

left, while Manjitya (their spokesman) was to be stationed amidst four (representatives).

The representatives of the western grāmas were to adopt a similar procedure but with their faces turned towards the east.

The king called Mayuravarmā was then to ask permission of the deities presiding over the eastern and western regions, and take his seat on the throne with the sixty-four tributary rulers on the right and the left sides. These latter were to be stationed on the south in this manner:-In two rows of thirty-two with their face turned towards the north. (How these tributary kings were to be seated is given in a later passage thus:-On carpets were to be placed long bolsters for reclining [lodu]; and Kocci Kiritadhipati, also called Koccinātha, was to be seated on the right, and Vāmanjūru Rāmanātha, also called Rāmanta, was to be seated on the left. When these were thus seated, the Cauta and Banga chiefs were to be stationed at two posts, Talavara and Savanta chieftains at two posts [vaddi-nallu?], the other dhores or nobles to be seated on either side). The king was then to ask the sanction of the General Assembly (sabhā anujñeyan kēli kond...).

Manja (i. e., Manjitaya) was next to summon the four Ballalas, who having understood, were to communicate (the case) to the Pandits and the Sabhapatis, who were to explain (it) to the Pakṣanāthas. The Pakṣanāthas were to stand up and address themselves to the vidvat-mahājana (i. e., the General Assembly of the Wise),

and the General Assembly was to say "So be it!" (i. e., to give its opinion on the case under discussion).

The opinion of the General Assembly being thus told to Mañja, he was to communicate it to the king (who gave his final decision).

The same version of the Grāmapaddhati continues to narrate the following concerning the sets of officials who were entrusted with particular functions in the General Assembly. Thus, the Adhivāsis were to give information or instruction (upadeŝa); the Jannis, various opinions (? tarale in the original, evidently a mistake for tarada, for tarale means a girl!); the Grāmaṇis, to investigate (vicāra); the Ballāļas, to administer (ballāļara āḍalite); the Bhaṭṭas, to arbitrate (pañcāyitike); the Paṇdits, to decide; the Sabhāpatis, to improve upon or to correct (tidduvalike); the Pakṣanāthas, to punish and to protect (ŝikṣe rakṣe); the Smārtas learned in the Vedas, to cite the canonical texts (S'rauta smārtara nityānasāra?); and the Tantris to decide whether the citations were accurate (? tantrigala āgamoktinirṇaya)¹

It may be observed here that another version of the *Grāmapaddhati* hailing from Udipi states that the Kōṭa Mahā grāma had an assembly of 40,000 citizens.²

The Manglore version contains a few more details concerning what is called jagat-mandala (or the mahājagat). It relates thus:—In the jagat-mandala was Mañja

^{1.} The Mangalore version.

^{2.} Version supplied to me by Pandit Venkatadāsa Ācārya of Udipi. B. A. S.

to be stationed (Jaganmanmaladalli Mañja sthāna); on the east of Manja were the Paksanathas to be stationed; on the left side of the Pandits the Sabhapatis were to be stationed; this was how they were to be stationed. The representatives of the four gramas beginning with Śripadi were to be stationed to the north of the Pandits; those of the four grāmas beginning with Ujjare, to the west of the preceding; those of the four gramas of the east, to the south of the preceding; and those of the four grāmas beginning with Idekedu, to the east of the preceding. In this way the assemblies of the representatives of the western grāmas were to be in the northeast of Mañja; while keeping always the right side towards him were Kunjannaya, Kaudambaditaya, Talepāditāya, and Manjunoditāya. And to his south were the seats of royalty in the midst of which there was to be the council of the king.1

These detailed notices of the manner in which they conducted their business in the General Assembly are not available in inscriptions. But from epigraphical evidence cited in the previous pages, it may definitely be stated that there were more than two or three large General Assemblies in Tuluva. We have also seen that in the conduct of public affairs, the people co-operated either with the rulers themselves or with their highest officials. The exestence of the General Assemblies and the close co-operation of the

^{1.} The Mangalore versian.

State with the citizens in ancient Tuluva, therefore, is proved beyond doubt.

Indeed, the two following stone inscriptions conclusively show that the earlier General Assemblies continued under the Vijavanagara Emperors. Both of them were found in the Gubbukone Gopalakrsna temple at Kanyāna in the Kundāpūru tāluka. And they fall within the reign of Harihara Rava II. The earlier of these is dated Saka 1306, Raktāksi, Jyestha, Su. 2, Sunday which corresponds to A.D. 1384, May, Sunday the 22nd. The Vijayanagara vicerov Mahāpradhāna Jakkarasa Odeyar governed from Bārakūru. The epigraph in question registers some privileges made by the Jananis (i.e., Jannis) of Rajadi-Bellatūru to the mahā-jagat, evidently of the same locality. The other is record dated Saka 1320, Iśvara Phalguna, Ba. 10 Saturday. The date agrees with A.D. 1398 March Wednesday the 13th, the weekday not corresponding. This inscription registers a sale of land to a certain Lingarasa by the six Jananis of Nālkūru of Rājādi-Kanyāņa (i. e., Bellatūru) and by the fifty jagat, subject to certain conditions.²

4. PUNISHMENTS

While the existence of General Assemblies and of corporate activities on the part of the Tuluvas is thus proved by the epigraphs as well as by the $Gr\bar{a}mapaddhati$, we have to see what actually were the punishments

^{1. 357} of 1930-31; Swamikannu, Ind. Ephem. IV. p. 370.

^{2. 359} of 1930-31; Swamikannu, ibid, p. 398.

meted out to culprits, in addition to those referred to in the epigraphs, either by the people themselves or by the king in conjunction with the citizens. We shall base our remarks on the Puttige version of the $Gr\bar{a}mapaddhati$, and on personal observation of affairs that took place in recent years.

The Puttige version of the Grāmapaddhati contains many examples of punishments given to culprits. Of these we shall select three types—the decision of the Mullūru grāma people, the punishments given to the Twenty-four Toṭṭilu grāma people,¹ and the famous Kūṭa (Kōṭa)-Kōṭīśvara dispute which is remembered even today by the people. To these we shall add the actual working of a village organization in our own days.

Mullūru was one of the impure grāmas (pātitya-grāmam) situated to the south of the Suktimatī or the Gangāvalī river. It is also called Moda grāma. Here were two Sūdra brothers Mudda and Kunda who, by the way, appear elsewhere as Jaina princes. They were wealthy and pious. Once eight Brahmans belonging to the thirty-two grāmas, approached these two brothers, along with their families, desirous of getting riches from the two wealthy brothers. The Brahmans blessed

^{1.} This is a curious name of village. In the original the word "Twenty-four Tottilu" is given in the margin of the palm-leaf Ms. Obviously the culprits, whose history we shall narrate, belonged first to the Ujjare grāma, and because they settled after their expulsion from that village at Tottiulu, the latter place came to be known as "Tottilu of the Twenty-four." No such name is met with today although Tottilu exists. B. A. S.

them, praised them in many ways, and secured much wealth from them. Here they lived for twelve years in peace.

Once the elder brother Mudda wishing to seek a bride, with the help of his relatives, pitched upon a girl who lived half a yojana away. On the wedding day, however, he could not find bearers who could carry his palanquin to the bride's house (sibikā vāhakah kō'pi nāsti atra viṣaye bata). Mudda then consulted the Brahmans, and since he said, "I am your slave, aid the prosperity of my family," out of pity and love, the eight Brahmans agreed to carry his palanquin to the house of his bride (aṣṭāpadena ayutām aṣṭau te sibikām dadhuh). On the completion of his marriage ceremony, Mudda returned to his village. In return for their kindness, he gave them various clothes, ornaments and 100 coins (sata-prasyam niṣkāṇi).

The Brahmans, however, hid these presents in places outside the village before entering it. The people of the thirty-two grāmas saw these sinners, and in a rage belaboured them mercilessly (patītān āgatān drṣṭvā grāmasthāḥ krodha mūrcchitāḥ daṇḍamādāya hastena nijaghnuḥ tān.)

The culprits hurried to their Sudra protector, who is called now a Vṛśāla. He consoled them by promising them a gift of a grāma full of cattle and other necessaries. Accordingly in the presence of the god Simhēśa, Mudda gave them the grāma, cattle, houses, and ornaments. Then he went on a pilgrimage. And the

Brahmans, who had been ostracized by their brethren of the thirty-two grāmas, lived in their new grāma which they divided into eight plots among themselves.

These eight Brahmans were considered to be outside the pale of friends, the guru, and the family (kulahīnāḥ parityaktāḥ guru-bandhu-janaiḥ saha). The people of the thirty-two grāmas condemned them as sinners (dvātriṃsat grāma-vāsibhyo ninditāḥ pāpa-kāriṇaḥ). Further they were condemned to eat the food of the Sudras (sadā S'ūdrānna niratāḥ). Their very sight made one impure, and the atonement (prāyaścitta) prescribed for the sin of looking at them was the following:— The man who looked at them should see the bright sun for a long time (caṇḍāmśo darśanaṃ paraṃ), and he should worship the great god Nṛṣimha. He who talked about them would never be able to fulfil any work!

The affairs in the Twenty-four Tottilu $gr\bar{a}ma$ were more interesting. In the reign of a king called Candradatta, a great car festival (dhvajottsava) was held in that $gr\bar{a}ma$. All the people including the Sabaras attended the great festival. Some people of the Ujjare $gr\bar{a}ma$ abducted a Sabara girl who had got herself lost in the crowd $(Ujjre\ gr\bar{a}mak\bar{a}h\ kecit\ va\bar{n}cayitv\bar{a}\ atha\ b\bar{a}lik\bar{a}m)$; and carrying her off to their village, in due course, gave her in marriage to a Brahman youth of another village. The Sabara parents bemoaned her loss in vain.

Years passed by, and the Sabari bore to the Brahman a girl and two boys. Once again the same wicked

Brahmans (atīva dhūrtāḥ viprāḥ) came to witness the car festival in that same grāma, along with the Sabarī and her children. Her Sabara father and mother too came to see the same festival. On meeting her parents, the Sabarī maiden cried out loudly at which her mother wept widely and her father attempted to seize her. But her Brahman husband, encouraged by his wicked friends, cried out that his wife was being seduced by a Nīca (a Sabara).

The case came up for hearing before the king who summoned the Sabara father, who is now called a Pulinda, and asked him why he had seized the wife of Brahman. To this he represented the whole case, and swore that he would undergo any ordeal to prove his words. He then went to his hut along with his wife.

The king turned to the culprits and addressed them in severe terms. Frightened at this, they confessed their crime but begged to be forgiven. Just and generous as the king was, he caused all their belongings to be brought and had them given to the representatives of the $gr\bar{a}mas$ ($gr\bar{a}masth\bar{a}$) with the order that they were to retain or abandon the goods belonging to the Brahmans as they thought best. He then returned to his palace.

The representatives of the Thirty-two grāmas bowed their head in shame. They met hurriedly together and decided to do the following:—On the neck of the Brahmans (who were a family of twenty-four) of the Ujjare grāma, they put red (flower) garlands and expel-

led them to the outskirts of the village. They then purified the ground (over which the sinners had walked) with cow-dung water, and performed their śrāddha or obsequies according to the kumbha rites, declaring that they should not be allowed to live any more in the Thirty-two grāmas:—

atha-rājā mahā-prājāaḥ satya-dharmarataḥ sudhī l
ādāya teśāṃ sarvasvaṃ grāmasthebhya pradattavān ll
parityāga-aparityāgaṃ taih-eva tu vidhīyatāṃ l
iti-uktvā nṛpatiḥ dhīmān jagāma nija-mandiraṃ ll
dvātriṁsat grāma-nilayā vṛlayānata mastakāḥll
sametya sahasā tatra pāpināṃ grāmavāsināṃ l
tasyāḥ samparkiṇāṃ rājan catur-viṁsati-kuṭumbināṃ ll
catur-viṁsati-arbhakāṇāṃ dolān-ādāya satvaraṃ l
teśāṃ galeśu nikṣipya rakta mālyāni yānica ll
ṣ(te)sāṃ grāmabahir dese tadvat gomaya vāriṇā l
tathā visarjayāmāsuḥ (mahā) bhāgā dhṛḍau vṛthāḥ ll
tebhya śrāddham tataḥ krtvā vidhivat kumbha-saṁjnakaṃll
dvātriṁśat grāma madh(y)eṣu na tebhyam sthānam-īdṛśāṃll

The Grāmapaddhati narrates that those sinners still wander homeless (sthānahīnāh), abandoned (parityaktāh) (by their castemen), and that they are forbidden the daily rites of worship (sarve karma bahiskrtāh).

The Kūṭa-Kōṭīśvara dispute is celebrated in the history of Tuluva. This happened in the reign of king Vasu (i. e., Vibudhavasu of the Ālupa family). King Vasu, as we have already seen, was celebrated for his good qualities. On one occasion there occurred a dispute between the great kūṭasthas (of Kōṭa evidently)

and the Kötisvaras, concerning the village boundary, and the income (rent?) amounting to sixteen prasthas payable therefrom:—

kadācit abhavat vādam Kūṭa-sthānam(nām) mahātmanāṃN tatha Koṭīśvara-sthānām sīmā vyattasta kāraṇam N tadāvai hema sambandhaṃ ṣoḍaśa prastha hetukaṃ N

The dispute dragged on for some time after which it was placed before the king. Notwithstanding the wily importunities of the Kōtīśvaras, the learned king, who was proficient in state policy (sa rājā nītimān vāgmi), after due deliberation addressed the assembly (sabhā) thus:—"We shall pray to the goddess Kāśyapī. She will decide the proper from the improper. Wheresoever there is sin, there you will burn."

Kāśyapīm prārthayiṣyāmaḥ vadati eṣā śubha-aśubham l kaluṣam yatra yatra asi tatra tatra dahiṣyasi ll

Then having ordered his officers (cārān ājñāpayat) to summon atonce the representatives of the Thirty-two grāmas, who were well versed in their own dharma (dvātrimsat grāma nilayān sve sve dharme vyavasthitān), and who were exceedingly wealthy, respectful, and worthy of being honoured, the king addressed them thus;—"Tomorrow it shall be decided."

That very night some cunning Kōtīśvaras came to the village boundary, quickly dug a pit, hid a wretched (and doomed) man in it, and covering him with earth (kṣoṇim khātvā yāmāmātram kuṇḍe kuṇḍita karmaṇaḥ 1 nikṣipya puraṣam kaṣcit sikatam te prapūrayan 11), before down returned to their houses pretending innocence.

(On the morrow) the representatives of the Thirty-two grāmas went to the king, and blessing him requested him to come to the boundary line. Surrounded by Brahmans learned in the tantras, the king went to the boundary of the village accompanied by auspicious music and with materials for worship. All the people including the Kōṭīśvaras were present on the occasion:—

tadā Vasuḥ dvijaiḥ sārdhaṃ sīmāntāṃ prayayau mudā l sangṛhya pūjāsambhāraṃ daivajñaiḥ tāntrikaiḥ saha ll tauryantrikena samyuktaḥ Kōṭa Kōṭīśvaraiḥ saha ll pūjāṃ cakāra dharaṇīm gandha-puṣpa-akṣatādhibhiḥ ll

(At the appointed place) the king worshipped the earth with naivedya, dhūpa, dīpa, etc., in the customary manner, and prayed to the goddess (Earth) with folded hands thus:— "Auspicious goddess! you know (best) whether I have committed sin or benevolence! Whether done wilfully or through ignorance, forgive me! In the proper investigation by the people (sodhanāya dṛṣā nṛṇām), let it be well pronounced by you whether this holy region (kṣetra) belongs to the Kūṭa-sthāna or to Kōtīśvara!" So saying he remained silent.

And the unfortunate man in the pit intending to bring ruin on himself as well on the Kōtīśvaras, cried out loudly—"This region, I assure you, belongs to the Kōtīśvaras (idam Kōtīśvara sthānam bruveham na atra samšayah)!"

The Kōṭīśvaras were jubilant but from the heavens came a voice (of the goddess), in great friendship to

her husband the god Kōtīśvara (nija bhartuḥ sneha-eva tathā Kotīśvarasya ca), and afraid of the sin committed by the people. It was the voice of the goddess Bhāratī, who making herself visible said thus:—"This speech does not belong to the earth: it is that of a human being! The Kōtīśvaras are deceivers and wicked: I curse them, O king, at the feet of Śiva!"

Kōṭīśa sthānajāḥ sarve vañcakāḥ pāpacāraṇāḥ l asmin arthe mahā-rājā śāpami S'iva pādayoḥ ll

The goddess, who is now called Bhagavatī, then vanished leaving the king Vasu surprised and stupified. For in the pit which opened before his eyes, was the body of a man turned into a mass of flesh full of worms!

grāmasthānām purastāt tu bhūmim khātvā pradṛṣṭavān l krimi-sankulitam māmsabhūtam pūruṣa vighraham ll

The king was deeply moved, but recovering himself ordered the confiscation of the property of the culprits, which he handed over to the representatives of the grāmas, saying—"Decree what is fit to be retained, and what, to be rejected!"

sa rājā vismayaḥ bhūtvā krodhāt samrakta locanaḥ l grāmasthānām purastāt tu sarvasvam apahrtṛya ca ll asatya vādinaḥ (nāṃ) tatra grāmasthebhya pradattavān l parityāga-aparityāgam taiḥ-eva vidhiyatam ll

Then the representatives of the Thirty-two grāmas decided that as the culprits had lied, and had thereby become polluted, homeless, disreputable, and devoid of their daily rites, they were not entitled to (the

benefits of) marriage (and other social functions) in the community.

asākṣivādinaḥ yūyam patitaḥ pāpayantritāḥ l anāsthāna-aṣlāghanīyā-sarvakarma bahiṣkṛtāḥ ll asmin grāme vivāhādi varjanīyaḥ bhaviṣyati l

Thus were the Kōṭīśvaras denied the privileges of society, and thus did they wander at will till they came across a great personage of resplendent countenance, who brought them back into the fold of the cultured society of Vaiṣṇavism. We shall describe in minute detail this great figure, and how he converted them into his religion. The Brahmans thus purified were now permitted by the king to live in a grāma which cannot be identified. But we may note in what manner they were held by the people: one became impure by merely looking at them (teṣām darśana-mātreṇa pātityaṃ labhate naraḥ). The atonement (prāyaścittaṃ) recommended for this fault was that one should abandon food on six occasions (prāyaścittaṃ ahaṃ vakṣe ṣaṣṭa kāla ásanaṃ tyajet).¹

Barring the reference to the goddess Earth, the procedure in the above case is strikingly similar to the one mentioned by Kautalya in his Arthasāstra. The general conformity of Tuluva judicial procedure to the ancient injunctions as laid down by Kautalya permit us to dwell at some length on the rules enunciated by that lawgiver. We have the following in the Arthasāstra concerning boundary disputes:—

^{1.} The Puttige version.

"In all disputes regarding the boundary between any two villages, neighbours or elders of five or ten villages (pañca-grāmī daśa-grāmī va) shall investigate the case on the evidence to be furnished from natural or artificial boundary marks."

In this detail the Tuluva procedure in judicial was in accordance with the principles laid down by Kautalva But in regard to the punishments, the Tuluva ruler mentioned above was stricter and less merciful than the judge mentioned in the Arthasastra. For Kautalya writes the following:-" If the boundary marks just described, are not found, a fine of 1,000 panas shall be imposed (on the misleading or guilty person)...The king shall beneficially distribute among others those holdings which have no boundary marks or which have ceased to be enjoyed by any person." Kautalya, therefore, makes no provision for the confiscation of the property of the culprits and its distribution among the villagers. Confiscation by the king is ordained only in the following circumstances—when disputes concerning fields remain unsettled either by the elders of the neighbourhood or of the village in the first instance, by the number of "pure and respectable" people, in the second instance, or by the disputants themselves in the last instance,-then, the "holding (vāstu) under dispute shall be taken possession of by the king".1

That the picture of a Tuluva village assembly may be complete, we may give a few details concerning the

^{1.} Kautalya, Arthasāstra, Bk. III. Ch. IX, pp. 207-208 (Sastry, 1923).

settlement of a dispute in our own days. Notwithstanding the fact that these remarks refer to a period that is outside the purview of the treatise, yet we may be permitted to give them in order to show how ancient usage still governs the actions of the Tuluva people. The following took place in the Ulpādi grāma, a suburb of Mülki in the Mangalore tāluka in 1925. Gudda Nāvaka, the pūjāri or priest of the Guddesāne devil shrine was dismissed by the grāmasthas or representatives of the grāma of Ulapādi. But he was reinstalled by the sime or district representatives. The gramasthas refused to entertain him, and hindered him from doing the work at the devil shrine. The arasu or king (of Bappanādu) having sided with the sīme representatives, excommunicated the representatives of the grāma for having disobeyed his orders. He decreed that no fire or food or water was to be given to the grāma people.

The grāma representatives then met in deliberation which lasted one day. They discussed the validity of the order passed by the arasu. At last they decided to fine him for having pronounced a judgment against them without hearing their case. The fine imposed on the arasu was only to the extent of eight annas, but it was paid on his behalf by some villager. And the ban on the grāmasthas was lifted.

^{1.} The pūjāris of the devil shrines in Tuluva are generally of the Baidyenāye or Billavar caste. Only in the Ekkār māgaņe the pūjāri is a Vokkēlme or a Bunt. Hence the pūjāri is styled a Nāyaka in the above account. The usual form which the social boycott takes is in this order—"tū nīra korade gandha prasāda korade" (Do not give

5. THE ORIGIN OF THE STORY OF MAYÜRAVARMÄ AND ITS DATE

The above account of Mayūravarmā and of the division of the land into thirty-two grāmas may now be examined with the aid of epigraphs and literature. We shall be concerned here mainly with the question of the age to which this part of the Grāmapaddhati relating to Mayūravarmā may be assigned.

(A) THE LEGEND OF MAYURAVARMA: ITS ORIGIN

The story of Mayūravarmā as given in the *Grāma-paddhati* has a close resemblance to the one given in the *Nigrodha Jātaka* which we may be permitted to give in full.

Nigrodha Kumāra and Sakha Kumāra were sons of two merchants. These together with Pottika, who was the son of a tailor, after finishing their education at Takkasīla (Takṣaśīla) came to Benares, and lay down to rest in a temple. It was then the seventh day since the king of Benares had died. Proclamation was made throughout the city by beat of drum, that on the morrow the festival car would be prepared. The three comrades were lying under the tree asleep when at dawn Pottika awoke and sitting up began to chafe Banyan's (i. e., Nigrodha Kumāra's) feet. Some cocks were roosting upon that tree, and the cock at the top let a dropping fall upon a cock near the bottom.

IV 1

fire and water; do not give gandha and prasada [of the local god]). A sime represents nine māgaņes, as in Mūlki, and below the māgaņe is a grāma. B. A. S.

"What is that fell upon me?", asked this cock. "Do not be angry, Sir", answered the other. "I did not mean to do it." "Oh! Do you think my body is a place for your droppings? You do not know my importance, that is plain!"

To this the other said, "Oh! Still angry though I declared that I did not mean it! And what is your importance, pray?" "Whosoever kills and eats my flesh will receive a thousand pieces of money this very morning! Is not that something to be proud of!"

"Pooh! Pooh!", quoth the other, "proud of a little like that! Why, if anyone kills me and eats of my fat, he will become a king this very morning; he that eats of the middle flesh, becomes the commander-in-chief; who eats the flesh about the bones, he will be the treasurer."

All this Pottika over heard. "A thousand pieces!" thought he. "What is that? Best to be king!"

So gently climbing the tree, he seized the cock that was roosting atop, and killed it, and cooked it in the embers; the fat he gave to Banyan, the middle part to branch (i.e., Sakha Kumāra), and himself ate the flesh that was about the bones. When they had eaten, he said, "Banyan, Sir, you will be king; Branch, Sir, you will be commander-in-chief; and as for me, 1 am the treasurer!" They asked him how he knew; he told them.

So about the time for the first meal of the day, hey entered the city of Benares. At the house of a

certain Brahman, they received a meal of rice with ghī and sugar; and then emerging from the city, they entered the royal park.

Banyan lay down upon a slab of stone, the other two lay beside it. It so happened that at the moment they were just sending forth the ceremonial chariot, with the five symbols of royalty in it (viz., sword, parasol, diadem, slippers, and fan). In rolled the car, and stopping, stood ready for them to enter. "Some being of great merit must be present here!", thought the chaplain to himself. He entered the park, and espied the young man; and removing the cloth from his feet he examined the marks upon them. "Why", he said, "he is destined to be king of all India, let alone of Benares!" And he ordered all the gongs and symbols to strike up.

Banyan awaking threw the cloth from his face, and saw a crowd assembled round him! He turned round and for a moment or two he lay still, then arose, and sat with his legs crossed. The chaplain fell upon one knee, saying, "Divine Being! The kingdom is thine!" "So be it!," said the youth; the chaplain placed him upon the heap of precious jewels, and sprinkled him to be king.

Thus made king, he gave the post of commanderin-chief to his friend Branch, and entered the city in great pomp; and Pottika went with them.¹

^{1.} Cowell, The Jataka, IV. pp. 24-5.

The story given in the Grāmapaddhati seems but to be another version of the above Buddhist account. Since we know that Tuluva was under Buddhist influence down to the tenth century A.D., it is not unreasonable to suppose that the earlier tradition current amongst the Buddhists was given a new colouring by the Tuluva Brahmans of the later ages.

While the origin of the story of Mayūravarmā is thus clear, we have now to find out the probable date when it gained popularity both in and outside Tuluva. This can be done by finding out how far it was known outside Tuluva, and whether there are any clues in contemporary epigraphs enabling us to fix the date, especially of that part of the narrative concerning Mayūravarmā's distribution of the land into grāmas.¹

^{1.} The general distribution of the 32 grāmas among the Brahmans is not to be confounded with the allotment of four grāmas among certain Brahmans. The North Kanara Gazetteer refers to a tradition according to which Brahmans from the north were settled at Gokarṇa. (North Kanara Gaz. I, p. 117, n.). The writer opines that this movement of Brahmans from the north may have been consequent on the destruction of Valabhi in Gujarat by the Arabs in the seventh or eighth century A.D. This view is accepted by the compiler of the South Canara Manual, II. p. 60.

On this question the following is found in the Puttige version of the Grāmapaddhati. In the polluted village called Nāga on the bank of the Cakranadī, lived the Brahmans cursed by Paraśurāma. But for the uttering of the gāyatrī and the wearing of the sacred thread, none would have called them Brahmans—so fallen they were. The Vedic lore was forbidden to them. Once when Mayūravarmā went to Valabhi to bring learned Brahmans, he employed these Brahmans as bōyis to carry his palanquin: Mayūravarmā sa purā medhāvi Valabhīm prati 1 Rāmena nirmitaih vipraih vāhayitvā sva-vāhanam 1 siṣṭhām viprām samādāya punah sa puram āyayau || . When Mayūravarmā

(B) THE STORY OUTSIDE TULUVA

The traditional accounts of Banavasi in Sunda have some similar legends to narrate. The details in which the sthala-māhātmyas differ from the Tuluva accounts will be evident to the reader. The sthala-māhātmyas of the Varadanātha temple at Sunda relate the following:—That Paraśurāma after reclaiming land from the ocean, peopled it with the Boya jāti or fishermen caste whom he converted into Brahmans. There were one thousand of them. But since they incurred his wrath by foolishly calling for his aid when there was no need for it, they were cursed by him. They thus became a degraded race. About this time a ruler named Mayūravarmā considering those Brahmans to be contemptible, sent for others from Ahicchatra, and located them at different places in his dominions.

The reason for this distribution of Brahmans is thus given:—In the Kadamba wilderness was born to Siva and Pārvatī a son who was called Kadamba. It so happened that the Mulata country being without a ruler, the people placed a pot of water in the trunk of

returned from Valabhi, these fallen Brahmans complained of the favour shown to the new-comers, and remarked that the king had assigned to the latter lands which Parasurāma had given to the degraded Brahmans. To appease them, Mayūravarmā granted them the following four villages—Kuśasthalī, Śāṣṭi, Maṭṭi, and Nāga, while to the new-comers, other lands were given. In these four grāmas the fallen Brahmans continued to live in the selfsame manner—indifferent to the six karmas. (The Puttige version). No historical information is forthcoming about this colony of Brahmans in the four grāmas. B. A. S.

an elephant, agreeing to elect the person on whom it should be effused. The elephant went to the Kadamba wilderness, and poured it over the head of the young man there. He was proclaimed king of that country and also of Caurāṣṭradeśa. He then went to the Keraļadeśa to perform homage; and at a shrine there was made king of that land as well. His son was Mayūravarmā. He wanted new Brahmans, being dissatisfied with the degenerate Brahmans of the land.

Another sthala māhātmya of Banavasi relates the following:—Mayūravarmā established in his capital a Brahman, who had impressed him with reverence, by refusing to eat in a country wherein there were no Brahmans. Candrāngada, son of Mayūravarmā, invited a large colony of Brahmans and located them in Keraļa, Tuļuva, Haiga (called in this version Haigara), Konkan, and Karahāṭa. This sthala māhātmya tells us that Parasurāma came afterwards to this country, bringing with him a colony of sixty-four families, among whom he established his own vaidika system. But between them and the others there was no agreement.

(C) THE STORY OF MAYURAVARMA IN EPIGRAPHS

The above versions from Banavasi merely prove that the story of Mayūravarmā's accession to the throne and

^{1.} Taylor, Cat. Rais., III. pp. 705-706.

^{2.} Ibid, III. p. 329. The Brahmans introduced by Parasurāma in this account are called Citapāvans, and are said to have been brought from Aryanād. The Parpara (Barbara?) country Brahmans were called Madhinyanal. These received rights and privileges from Candrāngada, son of Mayūravarmā. Ibid.

of his distribution of the land into grāmas was current outside Tuluva. But in order to ascertain the probable date of the origin of the story, we have to examine inscriptions that describe it at some length.

That the name Mayūravarmā which occurs in the Tulu Grāmapaddhati was historical, there cannot be any doubt. The palaeographical evidence supplied by the Candravalli incription, as Dr. M. H. Krishna has conclusively proved, enables us to assign Mayūravarmā or Mayūraśramā to circa A.D. 258.²

An admirable account of the origin of the Kadamba family is given in the famous Tālgunda (Sthanagūdha) stone inscription assigned to circa A.D. 450. The story given in full in this interesting record is outside our purpose; it is enough to note that this lithic record makes Mayūravarmā a Brahman, "an eminent twice born" of the Kadamba family.³

This demolishes the assertion made in the Tulu Grāmapaddhati that Mayūravarmā was a Jaina. No mention whatsoever is made in the Tālgunda record concerning the distribution of land into grāmas and the invitation

^{1.} Fleet and Rice also noticed the same tradition outside Tuluva. I. A. IV. p. 203 (n); Mys. Int. Intr. pp. xxxviii-xxxix. In the latter account, the heroes known to Tuluva tradition, viz., Mayūravarmā Candrāngada, Lokāditya, and Hubāsiga, also figure.

^{2.} My. Arch. Rep. for 1929, pp. 50-58. Mr. Jayaswal assigns th Candravalli inscription to circa A.D. 300. History of India 150 A.D. to 350 A.D., pp. 220-221. Mr. E. A. Pires assigns the same inscription to about A D. 283. (The Maukhāris, p. 30. [Madras, 1934]), on grounds which are not intelligible. B. A. S.

^{3.} E. C. VII. Sk. 176, pp. 113-114. See also Sk. 186, p. 121 for the name Sthānagūdha. Read also E. C. IV. Intr. pp. 1-2.

extended to the Ahicchatra Brahmans. Therefore, till the middle of the fifth century A. D., the legend of the distribution of *grāmas* had not yet originated.

The epigraphs of the twelfth century A.D., however, give us a clue to the elucidation of the legend in question. An inscription assigned to A.D. 1160 of a feudatory ruler called Soyi Deva, narrates the following:—"To Rudra and the earth was born, under the auspicious Kadamba tree Mayūravarmā, the driver of his enemies, surrounded with kings doing homage. As he was born with an eye in his forehead, the crown was not bound there as it would cover it up, but it was bound on him near his knee where it would thus show well. What more can I say in his praise? As he grew up in the thick shade of a great Kadamba tree, his family became the Kadamba family. After the celebrated Mukkaṇṇa Kadamba Mayūravarmā, many kings succeeded in his line."

A Jaina record dated A.D. 1077 gives us a few details concerning Mayūravarmā. "A kingdom having been procured for him from the Sāsana Devī, and that forest (vana) being formed into a country for that prince, a crown was placed on his brow composed of peacocks' feathers, whence he obtained the name of Mayūravarmā, the revered one (or progenitor) of the Kadamba-kula, Trilocana...".2

^{2.} E. C. XI. Dg. 35, p. 44.

^{2.} Ibid, VIII. Sb. 262. pp. 41-42.

From this inscription it may safely be inferred that the story of Mayūravarmā originated in the twelfth century A. D. A few more epigraphs of the same century will substantiate our assertion. In a copperplate grant dated A.D. 1198 we have the following:— From a drop of sweat from the broad forehead of Hara, in the ground under a Kadamba tree, sprang Kadamba, with four long arms and an eye in his forehead, like another Purāri (Siva), cultured with pure and high learning. From him was born one, subduer of the earth by the power of his sword, his own arm an invincible armour, the king Mayūravarmā.

With every decade a new detail seems to have been added to the story of the origin of the Kadamba-kula. Thus in a stone inscription dated A.D. 1174 which describes the greatness of the Kalacuriya king Soma, it is related that that Kalacuriya ruler together with Aśvatthāma had been to mount Kailāsa in order to worship Siva. He had previously worshipped Siva with the desire of obtaining a son. When filled with distress, Siva assured him saying "Do not be distressed!" Some Kadamba flowers fell down as if plucked. Seeing which king Soma worshipped Bhava with the flowers. On his doing so, Siva granted him the boon. And two sons were born to king Soma.²

^{1.} E. C. VII. Sk. 117, p. 84. In this copper-plate Mayuravarmā is said to have had Ravivarmā as his son, Ravivarmā's son being Nrgavarmā, etc.

^{2.} Ibid, Sk. 236, pp. 135-136.

From the above it will be evident that the Kadamba flowers were connected with the Kalacuriya kings as well, although these do not figure in the Tuluva accounts. That the legend of Mayuravarma and the peacock's feathers was current in the twelfth century A.D. will be proved by the following stone inscription dated A.D. 1189 which describes the greatness of Kava Deva. It opens with Gauri sporting in the Himya (Himālaya) mountain and Hara falling in love with her. "From Hara's virtue being absorbed by the earth, was born one who was a portion of Girīśa, with a frontal eye and four arms. Isyara, seeing with pleasure this splendid son, blessed his offspring to be a king in the world, and from his being sprung from Samarahara and the earth, he received the title Harādharnī-prasūtam; from being born in the Kadamba grove, the title Kadamba Rudra; from the reflection of peacock's feathers being impressed on his body, the title of Mayūravarmā!"

The twelfth century A.D., therefore, saw the popularization of the legend connecting Mayūravarmā with the peacocks. We may not be far wrong in asserting that it may have been in the same century that it travelled to Tuluva, where the Brahmans gave it a local colouring incorporating it in the Grāmapaddhati. Turning to the other part of the legend of Mayūravarmā, viz:, the introduction of Brahmans from Ahicchatra and the allotment of grāmas among them, it

^{1.} E.C., VIII. Sb. 179, p. 27.

IV

may be remembered that, while the earliest reference to the Ahicchatra Brahmans dates prior to the twelfth century A.D., no mention is made either of Mayūravarmā or of the distribution of land among them. Thus in an inscription dated A.D. 904 of the times of Ereyapa Nītimārga, we are told that "From Ahicchatra the abode of yatis, in which was the temple of Padmodbhava (Brahmā), there came originally to the south country, in order to make it pure, free from sin, and filled with merit, companies of learned Brahmans, to the honoured district (visaya) named Vanavasi." There the whole company settled in the great village called Tānagunda (its praise and the greatness of the Brahmans described).

The above proves that in the beginning of the tenth century A.D., Ahicchatra was not associated either with Paraśurāma or with Mayūravarmā. But by the first quarter of the eleventh century A.D., the story of the distribution of grāmas by Mayūravarmā received further embellishment at the hands of the scribes of inscriptions. We may recount here the division of the grāmas into those of western and eastern sections as given in the Grāmapaddhati. The total number of grāmas thus divided, we may be permitted to repeat, was thirtytwo.²

^{1.} E. C. XII. Nj. 269, pp. 135-136.

^{2.} Cf. Taylor, Cat. Rais., III. p. 660 where the division of thirty-two grāmas is ascribed to Parasurāma. Read also Rice, Mys. Ins. p. 196 where Mukkanna Kadamba is described to have selected 12,000 Brahmans from Ahicchatra belonging to thirty-two families.

That the original number of thirty-two was in the mind of the people is seen by the exaggerated accounts found in the inscriptions ranging from A.D. 1027 to A.D. 1158. In A.D. 1027 the 32,000 Brahmans of the immemorial agrahāra of Gauḍa, also called Gauja, are mentioned. The Brahmans of Tānaguṇḍur (Tālguṇḍa) are said to have come from Ahicchatra 32,000 in number, in a record dated A.D. 1092. They are further described as residents of 144 villages acquired as donations for the eighteen horse-sacrifices of king Mayūravarmā. The same number of Brahmans in in Tālguṇḍa is repeated in A.D. 1107. They are called 32,000 Brahmans of Sthānagūḍha in A.D. 1158.

A more rational account of the Brahman migration from Ahicchatra is given in an inscription dated A.D. 1162, which relates that among the ornaments of the world was the agrahāra of Ahicchatra in the north. The Ganga kings having gone there in the course of a victorious expedition, brought from it fifty chief Brahmans for the increase of their own fortune.⁵

This is the only statement in inscriptions upon which some reliance may be placed. Rice, while editing it, remarked that "perhaps Gangas is a mistake for Kadambas." It does not seem to be so. Epi-

^{1.} Ibid, Sk. 47, p. 50; see also Sk. 46 dated A.D. 1068 for the name Gauja, p. 50.

^{2.} E. C. VII., Sk. 178, p. 115.

^{3.} Ibid, Sk. 192, p. 122.

^{4.} Ibid, Sk. 185, p. 118.

^{5.} Ibid, IV. Hs. 137, p. 97.

^{6.} Ibid, Intr. p. 21.

graphical evidence confirms the above statement that the Ganga kings were associated with Ahicchatra. Thus it is said in an inscription dated A.D. 1122 that Ahicchatra was the capital of the Ganga king Viṣṇugupta.¹ King Viṣṇugupta's dates, it must be confessed, are not ascertainable for the present. He was one of the earliest Ganga rulers, when the Ganga family had not yet arrived at Ganga Perūr in the Cudappah district.² Ahicchatra was rechristened Vijayapura by Priyabandhu, or Priyabandhuvarmā Devendra, one of the Ganga rulers who came after king Viṣṇugupta.³

The reason why Rice is more inclined to accept the story of the Kadambas having introduced Brahmans from Ahicchatra, is due perhaps to the fact that in the inscriptions we have already cited, and in those to be mentioned presently, the Kadambas are said to have brought the Brahmans from that northern centre. Thus in a record assigned to circa A.D. 1200, which describes the greatness of the agrahāra of Sthānagūdha, in the beautiful Kuntala country, we have the following:—The king of which, the lord of Banavase and of many other countries, Mukkaṇṇa Kadamba (his praise given) seeking with desire in the region of the south (dakṣinā-patha) for the tribe of Brahmans (vipra-kula), not finding any, without delay went forth, and doing worship to the Ahicchatra agrahāra, succeeded in obtaining

^{1.} E.C., VII. Sh. 4, pp. 4-5.

^{2.} Rice, Mys. & Coorg., pp. 30-31.

^{3.} Ibid, p. 30.

tnirty-two Brahman families purified by 12,000 agnihotras, whom sending before him he brought and established in the outskirts of the city (Sthānagūḍha-purada poravolal ent-ene) in the great agrahāra of Sthānagūḍha which he had founded in the tract he had noted (its praise).

The number thirty-two relating to the Brahmans given in the Tulu Grāmapaddhati agrees very well with that given in the above inscription. Likewise the statement that Mayūravarmā not finding Brahmans in the south, went to the north to get orthodox families, coincides with that given in the above Tulu work. We shall see that the number thirty-two is also mentioned in another epigraph to be cited presently.

Meanwhile we may continue to cite references to the Ahicchatra Brahmans in the epigraphs of the latter half of the twelfth and in those of the thirteenth centuries. The Drāviļadeśa Periyanda Hebbāruva and other Brahmans of the immemorial agrahāra Koļļinganahaṭṭa are said in an inscription dated about A.D.1185, to have been "connected with Ahicchatra".

Even the Nānā Deśis are called Lords of Ahicchatrapura in a record dated A.D. 1267.3

Before passing on to the question of the date of that part of the *Grāmapaddhati* relating to Mayūravarmā and Ahicchatra, the location of Ahicchatra may be

^{1.} E. C. VII. Sk. 186, p. 121.

^{2.} Ibid, Hl. 91, p. 170.

^{3.} Ibid, IX. DB. 31, p. 67.

determined. According to Gerini, Ptolemy's Adeisaga (Adisadra) may be a clumsy rendering of Ahicchatra or Ahiksetra, the name of the ancient capital of Uttara Pañcāla, north of the Ganges.¹ Cunningham had identified it with the modern Ahicchatur, eighteen miles west of Bareilly, and seven miles north of Anola.² Others, however, have identified it with Ramnagar, twenty miles west of Bareilly in Rohilkand, the name Ahicchatra being confined to the great fortress in the lands of Alampurkot and Nasratganj.³

6. HISTORICITY OF THE FAMILIES MENTIONED IN THE GRĀMAPADDHATI

Some of the families mentioned in the Grāma-paddhati can lay claims to antiquity. It may be observed here that the Grāmapaddhati does not contain an exhaustive list of all the ancient families of ancient Tuluva. Thus, for instance, it does not speak of the household called the Bhattitilla which, we have already narrated, figures in a record dated Saka 1312 (A.D.1390-91) found at Tiruvaila in the Mangalore tāluka. The management of the sarvamānya gift

^{1.} Gerini, Researches into Ptolemy. p. 747.

^{2.} Cunningham, Archl. Survey of India, I. pp. 255-7. Pargiter follows him. Mark. Pur. p. 353 (n).

^{3.} Dey, Geographical Dictionary of Ancient and Mediaeval India, pp. 2-3. (2nd ed.) Mr. Harihar Trivedi accepts this identification and rejects Mr. Jwala Sahay Mishra's identification of the same with the modern village of Ariora which lies a little north of the village of Bhadur in Patiala. Indian Culture, I. pp. 253-4. Ahicchatra, it may be noted in passing, is one of the diamond centres mentioned by Kautalya. Arthaśāstra, p. 85 (Sastry, 1923).

already described was to be vested in the hereditary charge of the members of the Bhaṭṭitilla family. But the *Grāmapaddhati* speaks of the Naḍvattillāya or Naḍvattilla, Mūḍanttilla or Mūḍanttillāya, Koḍittillāya or Koḍittilla, and various other families.

A few of the prominent families mentioned in the Grāmapaddhati, and in one instance, a local deity as well, have figured in Tuluva inscriptions. These were the god Mārkandeśvara of Bārakūru, and the families of the Hollas, the Handes, the Mayyas, the Karantas, and the Mūdila Nidambūru Ballālas. We have seen that it was the Rsi Mārkandeśvara who had advised the two sons of Manivarma of Barakuru in regard to the procedure that was to be adopted to get the throne of that kingdom. Tradition relates that Bārakūru was originally the āśrama of Mārkandeya. This is borne out by a stone inscription dated Saka 1347 (A.D. 1425-6) which informs us that the god Pancalinga belonged to Mārkandeśvara the original (patron saint?) of the street called Kotekeri of Barakuru (ā Barakuru koteva mūlasthāna Mārkandesvarada Pañcalinga-dēvara sannidhiyalli...1)

Turning to the families we find that all the following belonged to the Kōṭa grama—the Hoḷḷas, the Mayyas, the Kārantas, and the Handes, while the Mūḍila Niḍambūru family hailed from the Uḍipi tāluka. Viṣṇū Hoḷḷa and Vāsudeva Hoḷḷa, sons of Nāraṇa (Nārāyaṇa) Hoḷḷa, are mentioned in an inscription dated Saka 1301

^{1. 180} of 1901, S. I. I., VII. No. 385, p. 240.

(A.D. 1379-80) recording a grant to the Somesvara temple at Mūdukēri in Bārakūru. This was in the reign of the Vijayanagara ruler Harihara Rāya II.1 The Mayvas figure in an inscriptian dated Saka 1359 (A.D. 1437-8). It relates that when Annappa Odevar was the viceroy over Barakuru in the times of the Vijayanagara Emperor Deva Raya II, a grant was made to the Somanatha temple at Manigarakeri in Barakuru by a number of Settis together with the following members of the Mayya family:-Mādhaya Mayya's son Krsna and Nārāyana; Krsnayya's son Vāsudeva Mayya; Koyakūra Vāsudeva Mayya's son Krsna Mayya (Manavūra olage Mana-ūra devara Mādhava Mayyana makkalu Krsnanu Nārāyananu Krsnayyana maga Vāstēva Mayyanu Koyakūrā Vāstēva Mayyana maga Kṛṣṇā Mayyanu otti barada śilā śāsanada kramavent-endare).2 This clearly proves that the members of the Mayva as well as those of the Holla families were cited as witnesses to public grants made by the prominent citizens of Barakuru in the first half of the fifteenth century A.D.

The same may be said of another well known family—that of the Kārantas. Another stone inscription found also in the Somanātha temple at Maṇigārakēri in Bārakūru, dated Śaka 131 (6) (A.D. 1394-5), mentions Śankara Odeyar as viceroy over Bārākūru in the reign of the Vijayanagara king Harihara Rāya II. It records a grant made by Keśava Nāyaka, son of Vijaya

^{1. 126} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 316, p. 166.

^{2. 168} F of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 372, p. 226.

A. K. 22

Nāyaka, to the god Somanātha. Among the witnesses to the grant are the following:—Govinda Kāranta, son of Keśava Kāranta; Nārāyana Kāranta, son of Haṇḍana Viṣṇu Kāranta of the western house; Mayijaṇṇa, son of Teji Bhaṭṭayya; Dharaṇi Seṭṭi, son of Kōṭiyapa Seṭṭi and others (Keśava Kārantana maga Govinda Kāranta paḍuva maneya Haṇḍana Viṣṇu Kārantana maga Nāraṇa Kāranta Teji Bhaṭṭayyanavara maga Mayijaṇṇanaru Kōṭiyapa S'eṭṭiya maga Dharaṇi S'eṭṭi).¹ In a record with characters of the same age a son of Haṇḍa Kṛṣṇa Kāranta is mentioned. The date of this record cannot be determined.² We may recall here that in an epigraph dated A.D. 1437-8 cited above, concerning the Mayyas, a Kṛṣṇa Kāranta is mentioned.³

The Handes are spoken of in a grant dated only in the cyclic year Śrīmukha, made to the god Somanātha, evidentaly of the same locality referred to above. No ruler or overlord is mentioned in this epigraph. It registers a grant by Śankara Hande, son of Dēmaṇa, in the presence of the halaru or citizens of Maṇigārakēri in Bārakūru (Handeṭina Dēmaṇa Handeya maga S'ankara Handeyaru...)⁴

Two prominent families may also be mentioned here. Thes were the Citupadi and the Nidambūru households of the Udipi tāluka. Like the families of Koṭa which we have described above, the Citupadi

^{1-2. 159} of 1901; S.I.I. VII. No. 356, pp. 213-214, and ibid, n. (1).

^{3. 168} F of 1901, op. cit.

^{4. 161} of 1901, S. I. I. VII. No. 359, p. 210.

and the Nidambūru families wielded considerable influence in their own locality. In the Grāmapaddhati, as we have already remarked, these two families are called the Paksanāthas. The Citupadi or Cittupadi family representatives are mentioned in a record dated Saka 1398 (A.D. 1476-7), of the times of the Vijavanagara king Virūpākṣa Rāya II.1 The earliest reference to the other family of Nidambūru as given in a record dated A.D. 1281, has already been adverted to in an earlier context. In a later stone epigraph dated Saka 1317 (A.D. 1395-6) of the reign of the Vijayanagara king Harihara Raya II, found in the Udipi Śrikṛṣṇa mațha, it is called Mūdela Nidambūru. It locates the matha of the god Krsna thus:-S'ivaliya Mūdela Nidambūra grāmada madhvada Udipina sthānada S'rī Kru (kr) sna-dēvarige. This was when the Vijavanagara vicerov Sankara Odeyar was ruling from Bārakūru.² In A.D. 1399-1400, as narrated in a record already cited above, when the Vijayanagara viceroy was the Mahāpradhāna Nāgarasa Odeyar, the Mūdila Nidambūraru were one of the parties to whom the vicerov gave the gift³.

The importance of this well known family is seen not only in the above records but also in the following which clearly demonstrates that the Nidambūru grāmastharu were citizens of much consequence. A defaced inscription found in the Udipi Śrīkṛṣṇa maṭha of the reign of Harihara Rāya II, ends thus:—Vidyādhi (Rā)ja

^{1. 39} of 1901, S. I. I. VII. No. 209, p. 105.

^{2. 112} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 299, p. 151.

^{3. 154} C of 1901, op. cit.

Tīrtha S'rīpādangaļu Harihara Rāyana kayyalu mādida dharma S'rī-Vīra Harihara Rāvara voppa S'rī-Vīrūpāksadēvaru S'ivaliya Mūdila Nidambūrā grāmada voppa Udupina S'rī-Mahādēvaru Kondaūravara voppa Konata-dēvaru. other stone inscription found in the same famous matha, and assignable to the same reign, ends in a similar manner, thus:-S'rī-Harihararāyara kayyalu mādida dharmma S'rī-Vīra Harihararāyara voppa S'rī Virūpākṣadēvaru S'iva. liva Mūdillavaru Nidambūru grāmada voppa Udupina S'rī-Mahādēvaru Saguriya Kunjatavana Naduvanti a**nav**ar**ta** Dēvaliva dēvaru Banninjada adhivāsada jananigaļa voppa tālekūde dēvaru Kodaūra jananigala voppa Kānada (Kānana?) Sankaranārāvana dēvara voppa... These epigraphs conclusively prove that the presence of the Nidamburu representatives was necessary when an official grant was made. This refers of course to the affairs in Udipi alone.

Of the witnesses mentioned in the above grants, a word may be said of the god Virūpāksa. This name refers to the deity which is said to have been in the Lingāyata maṭha in that quarter of the modern Uḍipi town which is called Māruthivīthikā. The entire locality of Māruthivīthikā and its neighbourhood is said to have been the property of the god Virūpākṣa whose temple is incorporated in the Lingāyata maṭha. It is still known as Vīrūpākṣa-kumēri among the people. It is said that a great part of Uḍipi comprised the Virūpaksa-

^{1. 115} af 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 303, pp. 115-116.

^{2. 111} of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 298, pp. 150-51.

kumēri. The probability seems to be that this was a very ancient temple about which unfortunately nothing is available in epigraphs or literature.

7. CRITICISM OF THE GRĀMAPADDHATI AND ITS DATE

The Grāmapaddhati, no doubt, is defective, even as a traditional account of the village organization. But all the same it is very useful for the history of Tuluva. The following may be said against it:—

- (1) It is lacking in uniformity. Thus, in one version Mayūravarmā is introduced abruptly; while in others his parentage is given. In some he is made the son of Manivarmā; in others the son of Sūśīla and Hemāngada.¹ But in some versions, Hemāngada is described to be issueless.² In otner accounts, Vīravarmā is said to have become Mayūravarmā.³ This is not mentioned in other versions.
- (2) The Grāmapaddhati contains statements which, even on the strength of Tuluva tradition, cannot be accepted. Thus, in one version the ministers, who go in search of a ruler, are described to have proceeded to northern Vārakūla (i. e., Bārakūru). But this is clearly inadmissible, since there never existed northern and southern Bārakūru.
- (3) The Grāmapaddhati is uniformly represented to be a portion of the Sahyadri-kānda of the Skānda Purāna.

^{1.} The Puttige version.

^{2-3.} Hegde, Carite, pp. 71, 74.

^{4.} Ibid, p. 71.

This detracts its value as a piece of independent historical work.

Neverthless, the Grāmapaddhati is a source which cannot be dismissed as an instance of Brahmanical fabrication. Almost all the grāmas and many of the households mentioned in it exist today. The historicity of some of the prominent families has already been proved. Down to our own times, the Grāmapaddhati has always been referred to as a work of great authority, especially in deciding questions concerning the society of the Tulu Brahmans.

The few details we have enumerated above, enable us to determine the date of the Grāmapaddhati. That the composers of Grāmapaddhati are, on the whole, chronologically unreliable is evident from the following considerations:—In one passage in the Mangalore version, it is related that at the end of the reign of Jayantika Kadamba Rāya in Kali 1605 came Mayūravarmā. In a later passage in the same version, the distribution of the grāmas by Mayūravarmā is dated in 1731 Vikrta Samvatsara which is evidently an error for Kali 1731! And still further down in the same narrative Citrāngada is placed in Kali 1653! And the absurdity of the account is seen when in the same narrative the successors of Cantrāngada (i. e., Citrāngada) were eleven kings, all of whom ruled before the beginning of the Sālivāhana era!

For historical purposes, therefore, the above details are worthless. We have to rely on other intrinsic evidence supplied in the Grāmapaddhati in order to find out its probable date. From the Buddhist parallel of the story of the peacock given above, it seems as if we are to trace the origin of the legend to an earlier Buddhist source. The prominence given to Mayūravarmā in the Grāmapaddhati suggests that the upper limit of the story may be placed in the third century A.D. But we have shown that the story of the distribution of the grāmas was not current till the middle of the fifth century A.D. The Grāmapaddhati, therefore, has to be assigned to a later age. A rapid survey of some of the historical notices in that work enables us to assert the following concerning its date:—

(1) The Grāmapaddhati mentions a controversy between Sankarācārya and Maṇḍana Paṇḍita.¹ In another version of the same work, we are told that Mayūravarmā on the advice of Rṣi Mārkaṇḍeya, built temples the ceremonies and ritual of which were conducted according to Sankarācārya's injunctions.² These statements are enough to prove that the Grāmapaddhati was composed after the times of Sankarācārya. It must be admitted that the date of the great reformer is not yet settled. Neverthless, even if we place Sankarācārya in the middle of the eighth century A.D. or thereabouts,

^{1.} The Puttige version in which is incorporated a chapter called Ahicchatra paddhati. In all we have about 270 verses dealing with Sankarācārya. B. A. S.

^{2.} Hegde, Carite, pp. 83-84.

the date of the *Grāmapaddhati* which mentions him is brought lower still.¹

- (2) The Grāmapāddhati contains the statement that Jainism was spreading in Bārakūru, and that the Jainas were in a majority in that city. As we shall see in the next chapter, the advent of Jainism into Tuļuva cannot be dated earlier than the ninth century A.D. Therefore, the Grāmapaddhati which mentions the above and other notices of Jainism, could have been composed only after the introduction of Jainism in Tuļuva. That is to say, the Grāmapaddhati is to be assigned to the tenth century A.D.
- (3) The Grāmapaddhati speaks of Bārahakanyāpura. From the discussion centering round that name as

- 2. The Grāmapaddhati speaks of a dispute between the Jainas and the Brahmans in the city of Bārakūru. Hegde, Carite, pp. 76, 78, 99.
- 3. Ibid, p. 73. The Puttige version deals at some length with a ruler called Arhat, and mentions a Jaina ruler called Jinendra. The Ahicchatrā-paddhati also refers to the dispute between the Jainas and the Brahmans. B. A. S.

^{1.} On Sankarācārya's date, read T. R. Chintamani, IHQ. III. p. 39 seq. where Sankara is placed in the latter half of the seventh. century A.D. Swamikannu Pillai fixed Sankara's birth in A.D. 805. Swamikannu referred to in the Mys. Arch. Rept. for 1928, p. 152 Dr. Shama Sastry opines that Sankara's death took place in Saka 74 (A.D. 820). Proceedings of All India Or. Conf. III. p. 225. Mr. S. V. Venkatesvara places Sankara in the ninth century A.D. I. A. XLIV., p. 164. If Balavarmā's contemporaneity with Sankara is granted, then, Dr. Sastry's calculation may be accepted as valid. Balavarmā is placed in A.D. 812. Mys. Arch. Rept. for 1909, paras 46 and 53; ibid for 1910-11, p. 37. There is also a Balavarmā who was the father of Yaśovarmā and grand-father of Vinayāditya who is known by a record dated Saka 735 (A.D. 813-4). I. A. XII. pp. 11-13. Another Balavarmā is assigned to circa A.D. 750. E. C. XII. Mi. 93, p. 113. B. A. S.

given in the earlier pages of this treatise, it must have been apparent to the reader that the form Bārahaknyāpura came into vogue only in the tenth century A.D. Therefore, the *Grāmapaddhati* which so often mentions Bārahakanyāpura, and which, as will be explained in connection with the history of Bhūtāla Pāṇḍya, even ventures to give a derivation of that particular form of the name, could only have been written in the tenth century A.D., or later.

- (4) The Puttige version, as we have already seen, mentions a king named Vasu whom we have identified with the Ālupa king Vibudhavasu, who ruled in A.D. 1244-5. It is evident from this that the *Grāmapaddhati* must have been written after the times of king Vibudhavasu. In other words, it could not have been written earlier than the middle of the thirteenth century A.D.
- (5) The Puttige version describes a Madhva ascetic who was probably the celebrated Madhvācārya himself, and the manner in which the Vaiṣṇavites converted people into their fold. These details will be presently narrated. The date of the great Vaiṣṇava teacher will be discussed in the next chapter. In the meanwhile, we may note that the *Grāmapaddhati* which describes a great Madhva sage belonged to the age of the renowned Madhva himself, i.e., from the middle of the thirteenth to the beginning of the fourteenth centuries A.D., or to a later age.
- (6) The Grāmapaddhati maintains that the two Pakṣanāthas were, as we have already seen, Ciṭupādi

and Nidambūru. The earliest historical reference to the Nidambūru household called Mūdila Nidambūru, as we have also observed, is in the last quarter of the thirteenth century A. D. The Grāmapaddhati which speaks of the greatness of the Nidambūru family could only have belonged to the latter part of the thirteenth century A.D.

(7) The most decisive test which determines the date of the *Grāmapaddhati* is the following:— It describes the judicial procedure in the court of a ruler called Vīra Bhūpa. This was no other than the Vijayanagara viceroy Vīra Bhūpati, son of Yuva Bukka and grandson of Harihara Rāya II.. From independent epigraphical evidence we know that he was placed over one of the cities in the Karnāṭaka in A.D. 1386.¹ Since the *Grāmapaddhati* describes the judicial procedure in the provincial capital of Vīra Bhūpati, we may definitely assign the composition of Tuļu work, which

^{1.} Vīra Bhūpati, son of Yuva Bukka and grandson of Harihara Rāya II, mentioned in a record of A.D. 1386 (E. C. XI. Mk. 31, p. 95; Saletore, S. P. Life, I. p. 196), and again in a later inscription dated A.D. 1400. (Ep. Rept. of the S. Circle for 1913, p. 75). It was during his time that Caudapa composed his Prayagaratnamālā. (Aiyangar, The Sources of Vijayanagara History, pp. 54-55, Rama Rao, I.H.Q., X. p. 802)). This Vīra Bhūpati is not to be confounded with Vīra Bhūpati Odeyar, son of Deva Rāja Odeyar, who was placed as Viceroy over the Chingleput district and its neighbourhood. Of the second Vīra Bhūpati we have likewise two records (Cf. Saletore, ibid, I, p. 277, II. p. 293). The judicial procedure referred to here will be discussed in a separate paper. B. A. S.

may have incorporated matter of earlier times, to the latter half of the fourteenth century A.D.¹

8. THE STORY OF BHŪTĀĻA PĀŅŅYA AND THE ALIYA SANTĀNA KATTU

We have narrated the events till the days of Candrāngada, as given in the *Grāmapaddhati*. We shall now relate a few more incidents that took place after Candrāngada till the appearance of Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya of Tuļuva tradition. Ninth in descent from Candrāngada, according to one version, was Angaravarmā whose son was Vīravarmā. This prince while out a-hunting was cursed by Rṣi Koṭásādri (Rṣi on the Koṭásādri?) for having killed the latter's deer. Vīravarmā together with his attendants was burnt to death, while he was ascending the throne at Bārakūru.

Here come a series of events connecting Tuluva with the Pāṇḍyadeśa in the south. A brief resumé of these incidents is essential before we pass on to the question of the historicity of Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya. In the Pāṇḍyadeśa there lived a ruler called Jaya Pāṇḍya, who had four sons—Agniketu, Śikhiketu, Śivarmā (Śivavarmā?) and Bhūta Pāṇḍya. The last named worshipped a spirit

^{1.} This explains why the *Grāmapaddhati* calls Udayāvara merely a village (grāma). The reason is obvious: on the decline of she Alupas as a ruling power, as we have already shown, the original capital Udayāvara sank into insignificance, and Bārakūru and Mangalūru took its place. Of these Bārakūru continued to be the capital of Tuļuva down to the days of the occupation of the district by the British. B. A. S.

called Kuṇḍodara. The eldest Agniketu succeeded to his father's throne, and was followed by Agniketu's eldest son Saumyavīra Pāṇḍya. The latter's minister was Subuddhi. Candrāngada (of Tuluva?) hearing of the helpless condition in which the Pāṇḍyadeśa was placed, twice invaded the country; and although worsted in his first attempt, yet succeeded in routing Saumyavīra Pāṇḍya. On this the latter fled with his wife called Satyavatī and his five year old boy called Jaya Pāṇḍya, to a village named Sukha.

Meanwhile, Satyavatī's brother Deva Pāndva had failed to persuade his wife Siva Devi to sacrifice one of his sons as an offering to the spirit Kundodara which had made its abode in a gallant vessel he had built for trading with the southern seas. Satyavatī hearing that Deva Pāndya was in a pitiable condition, left the village of Sukha with her child Java, and meeting her brother, offered Java as a sacrifice to Kundodara. Being pleased with Satyavati's earnestness and piety, Kundodara led the boy Jaya to Vārakūla (which is supposed to have been the name of Bārakūru), where it destroyed the family of the ruler of that kingdom named Siddheśvaravarmā. Here the spirit made the state-elephant garland Jaya Pāndya. But not being satisfied with the Barakuru throne, Kundodara went to Uijain from where it brought Vikramāditva's throne and placed Java Pāndya on it christening him Bhūtāla Pandya. This event, according to some versions of the Grāmapaddhati, took place in Salivāhana Saka 1, Bahudhānya samvatsara Māgh Suddha Tratiya Vṛśabha lagna.1

Another version of the Grāmapaddhati narrates that after the extinction of the Kadamba line, the Karnataka dynasty appeared in Saka 705 (A.D. 773-4). When Cakravartin Vikramānkadeva died, in his line appeard Vīra Pāndva whose son was Bhūta Pāndva who was made king of Bārakūru by the spirit Kundodara. Bhūta Pāndya's son was Vidyutjimha whose three sons ruled over Bārakūru. They were succeeded by Vīra Sena who died issueless in Saka 1100. This afforded an opportunity to Pāndya, a Śūdra, to seize Bārakūru. But the patron spirit of that city called Bhūtanātha, evidently the same as Kundodara mentioned above, craved for a human sacrifice at the hands of Pandya. His wife refused to give up her son. But his sister agreed to do so. Pāndya then ruled over Bārakūru and eventually married twelve Jaina princesses. In honour of these twelve Jaina princesses, the city was named Barahakanyāpura. These twelve princesses gave birth to twelve sons-Tolāra, Cauta, Sāvanta, Banga, Ajila, Komna, Dambi, Kumbala, Binnāna, Heggade, Mudya and Kunda.

After Pāṇḍya reigned his sister's son Baddadāsa. This ruler rechristened Saneśvara as Baindūru. He appointed Nāḍavars (i. e., Bunts) as the tenants of the Brahmans. His sister's daughter named Halli reigned

^{1.} Hegde, Carite, pp. 103-135.

after him. It was during her time that the Nādavars claimed proprietary rights of the soil situated near Brahmāvūru. This seems to have been acceeded to, according to the Mangalore version of the *Grāmapaddhati*, but lands in Kōṭa, Kandāvara and Śivaḷḷi remained strictly in the hands of the Brahmans.¹ The Vijayanagara rulers are then suddenly introduced in Saka 1150 (A.D. 1228).²

A third version of the story relates the following: Kadamba Rāya gave his sister in marriage to Lokāditya after going over to Gokarņa. He killed Hubāśika, also called Hubbadiga, Habāsiga, and Hebasi, a wicked chieftain of the mountains, and then created Hayva, Tuļuva, and Malayāļa. This was in Kali 1689.3 But

^{1-2.} The Mangalore version.

^{3.} This Hubāsiga was, according to tradition, a Koragar chieftain. The Koragars belong to the larger group of wild tribes described by us elsewhere. Some represent him as coming from Anantapur. (I. A. III. p. 196). The following is the account of the Koragar chieftain: -When Lokaditva, who was assigned to B. C. 1450 by Wilks, was king of Banavase, an invader by name or Hubāśika overran that country with an army of Candalas, and marched southwards to Mangaluru in Tuluva. Here however his army was scouraged by small-pox at which he moved on to Mañjesvara to the south of Mangalore. Hubāsiga subdued here the local ruler named Angarayarmā. son of Vīravarmā, and reigned there in conjunction with his nephew for twelve years. Then both died. According to one legend, they died through the enchantments of Angaravarma; while another asserts that a neighbouring ruler treacherously proposed a marriage alliance between his sister and Hubāśika, and when the latter and his tribe attended the nuptials, effected their wholesale massacre. Angarayarmā then drove the invaders into the jungles where they were reduced to such an extremity that they consented to become slaves and were apportioned among the Brahmans and other landowners. But the

Candrangada, son of Mayūravarma, won a victory over Lokāditya, recovered his ancestral dominions, and reestablished the Ahicchatra Brahmans in the thirty-two grāmas.

Candrāngada next undertook an invasion of the Pāṇḍya land in retaliation to the invasion of Bārakūru by Bhūta Pāṇḍya in the times of Candrāngada's grandfather Hemāngada. Candrāngada succeeded in his venture, and brought as captive, among others, a woman named Pommaḍaya with her eleven children. He landed in the harbour of Udayāvara, which is called a grāma. The captives from the Pāṇḍyadeśa were re-christened thus: Māvana, Dēra, Cāru, Malli, Bambari, Cori, Paḍirāļu, Mittara, Cavuṭa, Kōra, Cara, Kambaļi, Cūra, Hōli, Heggaḍe, Kañcuna, Bhaṇḍāri, Sāvanta, Hali, Kaṭi and Khiri (or Bhiri). These were to serve the Brahmans of the thirty-two grāmas as servants.

Koragars, whom Hubāśika had raised to the highest posts under him, were stripped and driven to the seashore there to be hanged. But being ashamed of their naked condition, they gathered the leaves of the nicki bush (Vitex Negunda), and made coverings for themselves in front. On this the executioners took pity on them and let them go, but condemned them to be the lowest of the low and wear no other covering but leaves. Walhouse cited by Thurston, Castes and Tribes of Southern India, III, pp. 427-428. There cannot be any doubt that the Koragars were in some manner associated with proprietary rights of the soil, and perhaps even with some governmental functions, long before the Alupas became the rulers of Tuluva. It is also probable that the Koragars were addicted to warfare. But the above story is an invention of later times. The Koragars were but a branch of the Parna-Sabaras of Indian history. The name Habbusika, it may also be noted, is given to Abyssinia. E. C. IV. Intr. 31, Yd. 54, p. 60.

The dynasty of Candrangada became extinct in the Kali year 3884. Then in the line of Vikramarka of Karnataka was born Vīra Pāṇḍya whose son was Bhūta Pāṇḍya. This version, it may be noted, uniformly gives the name Bhūta Pāṇḍya Rāya's progenitor as Vikramārka, whom it places in Ujjain. Bhūta Pāṇḍya died in Saka 1100. After him there appeared the chieftain Pāṇḍu of the Sūdra caste, who married twelve Jaina princesses after whom the city was called Bārahakanyāpura. The reign of his sister's son Badda Dāsa follows and the names of the twelve princesses. In this version we have Mūla instead of Komṇa, Domba instead of Dombi, and Mudda instead of Mudya. In other details, this version agrees with the one given above.

The most important fact in connection with Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya of Tuļuva tradition is the law of inheritance through the females which he is said to have promulgated. This is known as the aliya santāna kaṭṭu, incorporating fourteen regulations called hadinālku kaṭṭu and the sixteen rules called hadināru kaṭṭalegaļu.

9. CRITICISM OF THE STORY OF BHŪTĀĻA PĀŅDYA AND AN EXAMINATION OF THE DATE OF THE INTRODUCTION OF THE ALIYA SANTĀNA KAŢŢŪ

Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya's name is held in great veneration by the Tulu people; the aliya santāna kattu governs a large section of the Tuluvas; and the fourteen regu-

^{1.} The Mangalore version, pp. 72-78. Sturrock gives the story of Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya. S. C. Manual I. pp. 62-4, 140-3.

lations and the sixteen rules have controlled Tuluva society for ages. These considerations compel us to examine the antiquity of the law called the aliya santāna kattu and of the fourteen regulations and the sixteen rules, and the historicty of Bhūtāla Pāndya.

There is nothing to indicate in the epigraphs available that the fourteen regulations and the sixteen rules were current in the times of the Ālupas. It is true that the term *kaṭṭale* appears in later inscriptions. Thus in a stone inscription dated Saka 1359 (A.D. 1437-8), of the times of the Vijayanagara monarch Pratāpa Deva Rāya II, when Annappa Odeyar was the viceroy over Bārakūru, the people who followed the

^{1.} But it is not to be imagined that the aliva santana kattu is universal, even among the Jainas. I am given to understand that it prevails only among the Jainas who are great landowners, i.e., those who are the heirs to the rich feudal estates of the mediaeval times. But among the other Jainas, the makkala santāna prevails. among the Jainas of the ruling class, the makkala santāna governs the following bidus of Tuluva to-day (1935): the Padubidre bidu, the Ermäl bidu, the Iravatturu bidu, and the Dharmasthala bidu. At Ermäl. for instance, the late Mr. Laksmapa Māramma Hegde was succeeded by his son Kumārayya Māramma Hegde. Now, the younger brother of Mr. Kumārayya Māramma Hegde, Mr. Nābhirāja Māramma Hegde, is the head of the Ermal bidu. After him the bidu will pass to Mr. Kumārayya Māramma Hegde's son. Hence the distinction, seems to be the following: -On the whole, the aliya santāna governs the Jaina royal classes, while the makkāļa santāna governs the Jaina An interesting example of a Jaina landowner who himself belonged to the makkala santāna, but who succeeded to the property governed by the aliya santāna law, is that of the benevolent gentleman Mr. Raghucandra Ballāla of Malali (Manēļ in Tulu), an ex-M. L. C., who hails from the Iravattūru bīdu, but owning the Malali estates. B. A. S.

ten regulations of the ten streets in Bārakūru are said to have appeased the representative of the Śivalli grāma on a particular connection (Bārakūru hattu kēri modalāda kaṭṭaleyavaru kūḍi S'ivalliya grāma santaisuvalli...).¹ This proves that the kaṭṭus and the kaṭṭales associated with the name of Bhūtāla Pāṇḍya were not current in ancient Tuluva, especially under the Ālupas. We have, therefore, to suppose that these regulations came into vogue in later times.

From the three versions of the story of this remarkable hero of Tuluva legend given above, it must have been apparent to the reader that there was no uniformity in them; and that so far as chronological data are concerned, no reliance can be placed on the story of the hero at all. It may be remembered here that while we have an account of that hero till his death in the Mangalore version, in the Puttige version no mention whatsoever is made of him. And even in the Mangalore version, the fourteen regulations and the sixteen rules are not mentioned. The omission of the name of Bhūtāla Pāṇḍya in one important (Puttige) version of the Grāmapaddhati, and of the rules and regulations in other versions, is significant.

It may be argued here that the *Grāmapaddhati* and the Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya story are two different accounts; and that the latter need not necessarily have been

^{1. 109} of 1901; S. I. I., VII. No. 296, pp. 147-48.

IV 1

incorporated in the former. But a code of regulations like that of Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya, affecting as it did the history of a large section of the Tuluva people, ought to have been at least alluded to in the traditional accounts of Tuluva, especially when these hailed from Kōṭa or from Udipi which were so near to Bārakūru, the alleged place of the origin of Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya. The contrary suggests that the story of the introduction of the aliya santāna kaṭṭu was not universal, and that it did not belong to the age in which the Grāmapaddhati was composed.

That the Tulu people believed in the story of Bhūtāla Pāṇḍya, there cannot be any doubt. Indeed, Wilks informs us that one-sixth of the crop is the share which is said to have been exacted by the government of South Kanara from time immemorial until in A.D. 1252 when a nephew of the Pāndyan king, taking advantage of a civil war, invaded the country, in ships, and conquered it. But the invader, however, imposed on the conquered subjects the task of delivering the crop deprived of its husk in a state fit for food,

^{1.} Hegde relates that Kötegeri Subrāya Jyosa of Bārakūru had a copy of Bhūtāla Pāndya Kattu in 13 chapters, which Jyōsa explained to Hegde. Carite, Intr. p. iii. Mr. Govind Pai asserts that he has seen a paper copy of Bhūtāla Pāndya's history in modern characters. Thuluva Mahāsabha Annual, p. 13. (Udipi, 1929). But while at Bārakrūru on two different occasions in 1922 and then again in 1932, I failed to trace a copy of the Bhūtāla Pāndya Carite. People maintain and believe that the original of this palmyra Ms. is buried under the image of Pañcalingeśvara in Bārakūru. This is mere fiction as I came to know while in that temple. B. A. S.

thereby increasing the revenue by about ten per cent. which is the estimated expense of this operation. This mode of payment continued until the establishment of a new government at Vijayanagara.¹

In the note on the same page Wilks records the popular view that the Pāṇḍyan race had their capital at Madura; that this invader, from his wonderful success, is fabled to have been attended by an army of demons-bhūtas-and was hence called Bhūta Pāṇḍya Rāya; and that he was the son of the king's sister, and from that circumstance is said to have established in the conquered country a law regarding descent in nephews by the sister's side.²

It is worth while to examine the historicity of this remarkable Tuluva hero whose story has survived down to our own days. At the outset it must be confessed that the peculiar law of inheritance through the female which Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya is said to have introduced into Tuluva, is common to Keraļa as well as to other lands outside Tuluva. This does not, however, prove its antiquity in Tuluva, nor the historicity of its alleged founder.

The internal evidence of the story of Bhūtāļa Pāndya together with that supplied in epigraphs and

^{1-2.} Wilks, Historical Sketches of South India, I. p. 152, and ibid. (n.).

^{3.} Cf. Manual of Administration in the Madras Presidency, III. p. 477, seq.; G. Krishna Rao, A Treatise on Aliya Santana Law and Usage, p. 11; Burton, Goa and the Blue Mountains, p. 209, (London, 1851).

tradition enables us to arrive at the following conclusions regarding the hero and his law:—

- (a) All versions of the story call the capital Bārahakanyāpura. The marriage of the twelve Jaina princesses is connected with this name. We have conclusively shown that the form Bārahakanyāpura came into prominence only in the tenth century A.D., and that it was not the original name of the city at all. Since the legend mentions only the variant Bārahakanyāpura, the legend can be placed in the tenth century A.D., or after.
- (b) The story of the Jaina princesses marrying the Bārakūru ruler strikingly recalls the offering of twelve princesses by Sugrīva to Rāma, as described by Abhinava Pampa in his Rāmāyaṇa.¹ It is likely that the Jaina conception of a ruler marrying at one and the same time twelve princesses travelled to Tuļuva during the time of Abhinava Pampa, i. e., about the twelfth century A.D. If this is accepted, the story of Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya may be assigned to the twelfth or the thirteenth century A.D.
- (c) In one version of the story of Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya, it is said that he received the throne of Vikramāditya of Ujjain. But in two other versions he is described to have been born in the line of the Karnāṭaka king Vikramārka.² Evidently Vikramāditya refers to Vikra-

^{1.} Abhinava Pampa, *Rāmāyana*, X, vv. 39-45, pp. 283-83. (Bangalore, 1892).

^{2.} The Mangalore version.

mārka, whose other name was Vikramāditya. Now, as we have already explained in a earlier context, this was no other than Vikramānka Deva Vikramāditya II, Tribhuvanamalla, who reigned from A.D. 1073 to about A.D. 1132-33. Therefore, on the strength of the internal evidence of the story itself, Bhūtāla Pāṇḍya can be placed only after the twelfth century A.D.

(d) The history of the descent among the Alupas conclusively proves that the aliva santana kattu could never have been legalized in Tuluva before the fourteenth century A.D. The history of the Alupas as given in an earlier context may be recalled here. We hall select only three sets of descent in order to maintain our assertion that under the Alupas, till the end of the thirteenth century A.D., the succession was from father to son, and not in the sister's line from uncle to nephew. Thus, in the seventh and eighth centuries A.D. Kundavarmarasa was succeeded by his son Gunasāgara who was followed by his son Citravāhana I. From the first quarter till the last quarter of the eighth century A.D., we have Prthvisagara followed by Vijavādityarasa. The descent in the royal house from the last quarter of the eleventh century A.D. till the last quarter of the thirteenth century A.D., proves beyond doubt that the aliga santana kattu never prevailed in the Alupa house. For Udayadityarasa (last quarter of the eleventh century A.D.) was succeeded by Bhujabala Kavi Alupendradeva, who was followed by Kulasekhara Ālupendradeva I. The last named ruler was succeeded by Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva Ālupendradeva I who was followed by Nāgadevarasa.

Since we cannot conceive of a law becoming popular and binding over a considerably large section of the people in ancient times without receiving royal support, and since there is nothing in the Alupa records till the days of king Nāgadevarasa (A.D. 1292-A.D. 1298) even to suggest that the aliya santana kattu had been legalized by the rulers, we may assert that it was not in vogue either among the kings or people of Tuluva till the end of the thirteenth century A.D.

But two objections may be levelled against this conclusion:—

- (i) Queens are represented as ruling over Bāra-kūru. Thus, the Pañcalingeśvara temple inscription found at Kōṭekēṛi in Bārakūru, dated A.D. 1185, already cited above, affirms that the crowned queen Pāṇḍya Mahā Devī was ruling over the city of Pannirpalli.¹ This, however, is to be interpreted in the sense that that city formed the personal estate of the queen, or that she ruled jointly with the king Pāṇḍya Cakravartin Bhujabala Kavi Ālupendradeva, whose long reign we have described in the previous pages.
- (ii) Aliyas or nephews are prominently mentioned in the Alupa records. For instance, in two of the

^{1. 171} of 1901, op. cit.

records found in the Mahālingeśvara temple at Kōṭa and at Brahmāvūru in the Udipi tāluka cited already, and both dated A.D. 1254, Vīra Pāṇḍya Ālupendradeva is described as ruling from Bārahakanyāpura, and issuing orders in the presence of Aliya Bankideva.¹ But this was an instance of mere corporate existence. It may be remembered here that mayduna (brother-in-law) Oḍḍama Deva was also present on these occasions. His presence on both the occasions precludes any idea of the king having shown special favour to the latter's aliya or nephew.

It is clear, therefore, that neither of the above objections is valid. It was only in A.D. 1444 that the aliya santāna kattu received royal sanction at the hands of the Alupa king Kulasekhara Alupendradeva IV. Our assertion is based on the Kanara High School stone inscription dated only in the cyclic year Raktāksi, but assignable on historical grounds to the reign of that ruler. The prominence given to Aliya Bankideva is apparent not only from the opening lines of the epigraph which we have already cited, and which mention the nephew first and then the uncle (king Kulaśekharadeva), but also from the manner of the ending of the inscription:-Thus the stone charter (was) engraved (and) given to Uncle Kulasekhara Deva by the nephews Bankideva and Bammadeva. Success to Kulasekharadeva! (yint-ī dharmam silā sāsanangevidu

^{1. 509} of 1928-9; 485 of 1928-9, op. cit.

IV 1

kotta māva Kulašekhara Dēvarge aliyandiru Bankidevaru Bamma devaru Kulasekhara-devarge mangala mahā-srī).1

Epigraphical evidence from outside Tuluva amply justifies our assertion that it was only in the middle of the fifteenth century that the aliva santana kattu received royal recognition both in and outside Tuluva. This brings us to the discussion of the interesting question concerning the identity of the legendary personage Bhūtāla Pāndya. In the eulcidation of this point we shall try to explain how the name and achievements of this figure got mixed up with the doings of historical persons about whom we have some records hailng from the Karnātaka.

Two viragals deal with a Pandya invasion of a part of the Karnātaka. One is dated A.D. 1292 of the times of Vīra Hoysala Ballāļa III. It relates that in the Śaka year 1213, Khara, on the eleventh day of the bright fortnight of Māgha, Thursday (A.D. 1292, February the 1st), when Marakāla of the house of Samudra Pāndya coming with his property and vehicles (vastu-vāhanasahitam bandu), demanded the Khandeya agrahāra,

^{1. 23} B of 1901, op. cit. The assertion of Sturrock that it was in A.D. 1250 that the aliva santana law was promulgated is wrong. S. C. Manual, I. pp. 63-4. Likewise the attempts made by those who place Bhūtāla Pāndya in B. C. 1 or A. D. 1. Read Govinda Pai, Aliyakattina prācinate, in the Thulu Mahāsabha Annual, pp. 4-19 (Udipi, 1929); Udayavara Narayana Achar, Bhūtāla Pāndya, p, 1. (Mangalore, Dharma Prakasa Vacana Grantha Mālā, No. 13. No year); Satya Mitra Bangera, Aliya Santāna Kattada Guttu (in the Kannada script but in the Tulu language), Thulu Sahitya Male, No. 3 (Udipi, 1930). Of these the last one is merely a farrago of ideas. B. A. S.

Kālala Deva's son Pāṇḍya Deva Mahādeva killed that Marakāla to bits, and seized his property and vehicles. For which Taligenāḍ and Devaligenāḍ rose, and marched against Pāṇḍya Deva Mahādeva. On a cavalry fight taking place in the Hunnūr river,...Canda Gauḍa slew Vīra Masaṇa, son of the tiger-tamer Masanitamma, who was the chief person in Devaligenāḍ, but died in the fight.¹

Another vīragal assigned to A.D. 1322 by Mr. Narasimhācārya, was found at Bāgavāļu in the Hole-Narasīpura tāluka. This records the death of Singeya Daṇṇāyka, son of Vīra Ballāļa Deva's sister's husband (mayduna) Someya Daṇṇayaka, in a battle between the Pāṇḍyan kings in the southern India. We are told that Singeya Daṇṇāyaka was in the service of Vīra Pāṇḍya of Kaṇṇānūru, and that in the battle that took place between Vīra Pāṇḍya on one side and his son Samudra Pāṇḍya and Parakala Pāṇḍya on the other hand, the former was put to rout, Singeya Daṇṇāyaka dying nobly in the fight.

Mr. Narasimhācārya, we may identically note, commented thus on the above interesting epigraph:—
"Parakala Pāṇḍya of this epigraph perhaps represents Parākrama Pāṇḍya whose inscriptions are dated in A.D. 1315 and onwards. Vīra Pāṇḍya is said to have ruled from A.D. 1296 to 1342. No published record gives the name Samudra Pāṇḍya. It is not clear why Singeya

^{1.} E. C. VI. Cm. 36, p. 38.

Daṇṇāyaka went all the way to Kaṇṇānūr to take service under Vīra Pāṇḍya."

These interesting details give us the clue to the appreciation of the story of Bhūtāla Pāndya. Both the vīragals refer to the aggressive activities of the southern Pandyas. In the viragal dated A.D. 1292, we have an expedition into the Karnātaka by an officer of Samudra Pandya; in that assigned to A.D. 1322, we have the death of a Karnātaka general in the service of Vīra Pāndya who fought against Samudra Pāndya. Now, we may remember that through Tuluva lay the safest approach to the Pandyan country along the coast. is probable that the commotion caused by Marakala in A.D. 1292 over the Ghats in the neighbourhood of Tuluva, passed into tradition and was converted by Tuluva writers into a story of bhūtas bringing in a Pāṇdya from the southern country. The expedition into the Karnataka and the subsequent help which Singeya Dannayaka gave Vira Pandya are probably the historical background of the expedition which legendary heroes like Candrangada are alleged to have led into the

^{1.} Mys. Archl. Rept. for 1912-1913, p. 41; I. A. XLIII. p. 227. Mr. Nilakantha Sastri is ignorant of these details pertaining to the help which the Karnāṭaka generals gave to the Pāṇḍya kings in the course of their civil wars. He mentions two civil wars: one in the reign of Vīra Pāṇḍya whom he places in the twelfth century A.D., the other in that of Vīra Pāṇḍya II in the troublesome days of Malik Kafūr's invasion. But nowhere is mention made of Samudra Pāṇḍya's wars, and the aid given by the Karnāṭaka generals. Read, K. A. Nilakantha Sastri, The Pandyan Kingdom, pp. 134-36, 138, 201-204. B. A. S.

santana law in his principality. For it tells us that a gift of land was made by Edava Murāri Keladi Cauda Gauda to the children of Vīrapaiya, stone cutter (kalukudiga) of the village of Kalise. The stone charter enjoins that the gift of the above estate was to follow the rule of succession to males through females (Cauda Gauduru Kaliseya kalukutiga Vīrayaiyana makalige koṭa bhūmi henni[n]da gandige mūlavendu koṭa bhūmi).¹ Where exactly Keladi Caudapa's principality lay is not yet a settled point; but that he was a feudatory of the Vijayanagara Emperor Kṛṣṇa Deva Rāya the Great is well known. For our purpose, it may be observed that Caudapa Nāyaka had given due importance to the aliya santāna law in the province under him.

To sum up:—(1) On purely historical grounds, it may be asserted that there was never a person called Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya in Tuļuva, but that stories concerning the depradations of Pāṇḍyan agents gained currency in Tuļuva resulting in a legend concerning an imaginary hero of the name Bhūtaļa Pāṇḍya.

- (2) The aliya santāna law, while no doubt may have been in vogue in lands outside Tuluva in the early centuries of the Christian era or before, was never legalized in Tuluva before the fifteenth century A.D.
- (3) In Tuluva the aliya santāna kaṭṭu received royal sanction under an Ālupa ruler only in the first half of the fifteenth century (A.D. 1444) at the same time that it had received official recognition at the

^{1.} Mys. Arch. Rept. for 1930, p. 219.

IV] CRITICISM OF THE STORY OF BHŪTĀĻA PĀŅDYA 367

hands of the feudatories of the Vijayanagara Emperors elsewhere.1

^{1.} We may dispense here with the Madras Government Epigraphist Mr. Venkoba Rao's theories concerning Bhūtāla Pāndya. Accepting the tradition given in the S. C. Manual as correct, Mr. Venkoba Rao connects it with a similar tradition current in the village Bhutappandi on the southern frontier of Travancore, concerning a ruler called Ollaiyur-tanda-Bhūtap Pāndiyan, "who conquered Ollaiyūr." Citing the evidence of the anthologies Ahanānūru and Puranānuru, Mr. Venkoba Rao maintains that this Bhūtap Pāndiyan "of the tradī. tion emerges as a historical king assignable to the early centuries of the Christian era. If any reliance can be placed upon the tradition connecting this Bhūtappāndiyan's name with a South Kanara expedition also, the Pandya interference in the west coast politics must be considered as dating from a very early period." Ep. Rept. of the Southern Circle for 1926-7, p. 107. How Mr. Venkoba Rao came to connect the Bhūtap Pāndivan of Travancore with Bhūtāla Pāndva of Tuluva tradition, cannot be understood. All that can be said in regard to Mr. Venkoba Rao's statements is that they are merely conjectures. B. A. S.

CHAPTER V

RELIGION

Summary: 1. Aboriginal faith: kāta worship-serpent worship-devil worship. 2. Buddhism: Sativaputa not Tuluva-evidence of Buddhism in Tuluva: later tradition-existence of three Buddhists in the 19th century A.D.—Badda Dāsa-Rājāvalī kathe-śāstāvu kallu-names of goddesses in Tuluva-names of towns—a great Buddhist monastery. 3. Faith of the Alupas: proof of the Saivite tendencies of the Alupa rulers from the earliest times-places of Saiva importance in Tuluva—the Rajaguru of the Alupa ruler Dattalpendradeva-the identification of Gagana Sivācārya-digression into the history of the Golaki matha-further proof of the Saivite religion of the Alupas till the last quarter of the fourteenth century A.D. 4. Jainismintroduction of Jainism into Tuluva-date: ninth century A.D. proof: traditional notices corroborated by historical evidence-centres of Jainism in Tuluva. 5. Vaiśnavism: sketch history of the great preacher Madhva. His datehis works-his teachings-a description of Madhvācārva -Methods of conversion. 6. Bhāgavata Sāmpradāva.

1. ABORIGINAL WORSHIP

Successive religious movements have no doubt affected the life of the Tuluvas, but they have failed to wipe out entirely the aboriginal faith of the early people who may be said to have been of non-Tuluva origin. We shall first deal with the interesting relics of the aboriginal faith, and, then, proceed to delineate a few details concerning the introduction and spread of the more advanced religions.

Aboriginal faith may be grouped under three heads: tree worship, serpent worship, and spirit or devil worship. Of these the last is the most famous. It is believed in by all sections except the Brahmans amongst whom, however, serpent worship is common. That particular form of tree worship called $k\bar{a}ta$ worship is common among the Koragars about whom we have many interesting details.\(^1\) It is believed that the Koragars celebrate the $k\bar{a}ta$ worship beneath a $k\bar{a}saracana$ tree (Strychos Nux-vomica) in the months of May, July, or October. Two plantain leaves are placed on the spot, with a heap of boiled rice mixed with turmeric. As is usual in every ceremony observed by a Koragar, the senior in age takes the lead and prays to the deity to accept the offering and be satisfied.\(^2\)

But this aboriginal belief has given place among the Koragars to a more popular faith which we may call devil or bhūta worship. The statement of Buchanan that the Koragars do not believe in spirits, but that they worship only a deity which they represent by a stone and to which they offer fowls, fruits, or grains as sacrifices,³ is by no means accurate. For they believe in a spirit called Nīca which is not acknowledged by other people. Further, they are devout worshippers of Māri Ammā or Ammanavaru, the goddess presiding over smallpox, and the most dreaded form of Parvatī, the wife of Siva. She is propitiated by blood-thirsty rites.⁴

^{1.} Buchanan, A Journey, III. p. 100; Raghavendra Rao, I. A. III. p. 197; Thurston, Castes and Tribes, III. pp. 425-32.

^{2.} I. A., III. p. 196; Thurston, ibid, pp. 433-4.

^{3.} Buchanan, ibid, III. p. 101.

^{4.} Thurston, ibid, Tribes, III. p. 434.

A. K. 24

Serpent worship takes the form of adoration of effigies of snakes (naga kallu), placed at the foot of pīpul free (nāga bana), especially on Nāgara Pañcami day, with milk, practically by all classes of people. These effigies are to be found all over the district. The most famous centres of serpent worship in Tuluva are Subrahmanya, Ballamañje, Kadu-kukke, Kudupu. Manjeśvara, Kalavara, Kattingere, and Vitthala. In the village of Arabi near Surālu in the Udipi tāluka and in Krimanjeśvara in the Kundapuru taluka are a quaint people called the Dakkes, or Vaidyas, as they are also known, who are reputed to be masters of the snake-lore. They administer to the superstitious needs of the lower classes on the occasions of what are known as the naga-mandalas and the brahma-mandalas. But in most of the serpent centres the worship of Skānda Kārtikeya in the form of Subrahmanya on Mrgaśirsa Suddha Śasthi, known in Tuluva as Skanda Sasthi, is conducted by the Brahmans.1

Devil or $bh\bar{u}ta$ worship is extremely popular all over the district. The $bh\bar{u}tas$ are generally attendants on Siva, and are found in almost all temples in Tuluva. But in this treatise we shall be concerned with that form of the $bh\bar{u}ta$ worship which is common among the Holeyas, the Pombadas, the Nalkes, the Paravas, the

^{1.} The statement made by some (Govinda Pai, Karnāta Sāhitya Parisad, Itihāsada Iruļalli Tuļnvanādu, 1927, No. 13, p. 100 seq.) that the worship of Subrahmanya is represented by the sāstavu stones is incorrect. It will presently be seen that śāstāvu stones represent another religion altogether. B. A. S.

Mogers, the Billavars, and the Bunts. Some details about devil worship as gleaned from the Tulu Padadānas² will be given in a subsequent chapter on the life of the Tulu people. Here we may note a few features of devil worship as practised today in Tuluva. The most dreaded names of the bhūtas in Tuluva are Kaikuda and his sister Karlutti, Bobbarive, and There is another name with which Kodababbu. we are not concerned here - that of the powerful Annappa in the celebrated place of pilgrimage Dharmasthala in the Putturu taluka. The of Kalkuda spread beyond the limits of Tuluva into Kerala where he is known as Catu Kutti. Bobbariye is essentially a maritime bhūta, while Kodadabbu is the patron deity of the Holeyas.

^{1.} On the Paravas, read, Thurston, Castes & Tribes, pp. 140-143. They are supposed to have some affinity with the Tamil Paravas, and to have belonged to the same stock as the famous sea voyagers of the times of king Solomon. But Thurston's statement that the Malayāļm and Kanarese Paravars are descended from the Tamil Paravars, is baseless. On the other hand, if we are to give any credence to the tradition current among the Tamil Paravars of the Tamil land, which make them natives of Ayodhyā and the land watered by the Jumnā in ancient times, then, the truth seems to be that in the course of their migration southwards, they reached the Karnāṭaka and Tuluva first and the Tamil land afterwards. It is possible that the descendants of the Tulu Paravars may have settled in the Tamil land, in the same manner the Tulu Vellālers colonized certain parts of that country. B. A. S.

^{2.} The word pādadāna resembles the Dravidian word pāt, meaning a song. But the nature of a Tulu Pādadāna is essentially that of a prārthana, prayer. B. A. S.

The bhūtas in Tuluva are generally worshipped in sānas (Skt. sthāna). Bhūta sānas have to a great extent been modernized in Tuluva. But some of the old structures answer to the following description given by Walhouse:—they are small, plain structures, four or five yards deep, two or three wide, with a door at one end covered by a portico supported on two pillars. The buildings are generally without windows. front of them are usually three or four T-shaped pillars, the use of which is not clear. Inside the bhūta sanās are images made of brass, in human shape, or resembling animals such as pigs, tigers, fowls, etc. These are brought out and worshipped as symbols of the bhitas on various ceremonial occasions. A peculiar small goglet made of bell metal and kepula flowers (Ixora Coccinea), together with lights are placed in front of the bhūtas. In some sānas, however, a sword is

1. Männer distinguishes the bhūtas thus: family bhūtas worshipped in kotyas; village bhūtas residing in sānas; sylvan bhūtas typified by the Brahmarāksas; and bhūtas connected with temples and inhabiting the gudis. I. A. XXIII. p. 29 seq. Sturrock follows him. S. C. Manual, I. p. 138. This is entirely a gratuitous distinction. Likewise is Männer's assertion that Kumberlu is the special bhūta of the Holeyas. This cannot be maintained at all, so far as the Holeyas are concerned. The difference between kotyas, sānas, and gudis indicates merely the locality where they are worshipped, and it does not in any way point to an essential difference in the nature of the bhūtas. The spirits of the two redoubtable brothers Kōţi and Cennaya, whose martial deeds will be described in detail in the last chapter of this treatise, are said by Männer to reside in the garadi. But a garadi is more often given to an indigenous gymnasium. Practically every bhūta worshipped by the Tuluvas represents some famous man or woman who performed great deeds of valour. B. A. S.

placed near the *bhūtas*. This sword is held by the priest when he stands possessed and trembling before the people assembled for worship.¹

Bhūta worship in Tuluva is generally of four kinds: kola, bandi, nema, and agelu tambila. The most common form of worship is a kola which name is generally applied to the celebrations in honour of the bhūtas. is offered to the *bhūtas* in the $s\bar{a}nas$ of the villages, and is witnessed by all the people of the village who contribute their mite for its success. A kola is sometimes also performed by an individual who has taken a vow. When the $k\bar{o}la$ is performed with the addition of another detail, viz., dragging about a sort of a car on which the Pombada priest who represents the bhuta is seated, we have a bandi. The celebration of the kola once in twelve years in a famous temple, as in that of Dharmasthala in honour of the formidable Annappa, is called a nadāvalī; while the same performed by a private person once in ten, fifteen, or twenty years goes by the name of nema. There is still another kind of worship given exclusively to the Baiderlu, and that is called agelu tambila.2

^{1.} Walhouse, Journal of the Anthrological Institute, V. p. 142; Sturrock S. C. Manual, I. pp. 137-138; R. C. Temple, I. A. XXIII. p. 5 seq. The assertion of Temple, who follows Graul, that bhūta worship refers to an early period of heroes is by no means accurate. Some of the bhūtas like Kōṭi and Cennaya belong to comparatively later times. And the Tuluvas do not worship only seven bhūtas, but, as Sturrock remarked, legion. Ibid, p. 138. B. A. S.

^{2.} Cf. Sturrock, ibid, pp. 138-39.

2. BUDDHISM

While traces of this most popular form of aboriginal worship are still seen everywhere in the district, not a vestige remains of Buddhism which somewhere in the early centuries of the Christian era seems to have taken its hold over the land. That Buddhists existed in Tuluva even in our own times there cannot be any doubt: the official statistics returned three Buddhists in the last quarter of the ninteenth century A.D.²

But of the spread of Buddhism in Tuluva in the early times, no direct information is forthcoming in history. Nevertheless, with the aid of epigraphs we are able to glean a few details concerning Buddhism which, taken in conjunction with the traditional notices and some religious observances current in Tuluva today, enable us to assert that Tuluva had indeed come within the fold of Buddhism in the early centuries of the Christian era. In this connection it must be said at the outset that the attempts made by some to identify Tuluva with Satiyaputa of the Edicts of Aśoka are wholly unconvincing.³

^{1.} Perhaps the only trace—if we may call it so—is the $dh\bar{u}pe$ or burial mounds in Tuluva. $Dh\bar{u}pe$ may be perhaps a corruption of stupa but no proof is forthcoming to maintain this. B. A. S.

^{2.} Sturrock, S. C. Manual, II. p. 11.

^{3.} Saletore, The Identification of Satiyaputa, Indian Culture, I. pp. 667-674. Dr. S. K. Aiyangar, in trying to refute me, has vainly endeavoured to locate Satiyaputa somewhere "to the north or N. W. of the three well-known southern kingdoms". Journal of Indian History, XIV, No. 41, pp. 278-9. We are none these wiser for these

Traditional notices which refer to the existence of Buddhism in Tuluva in early times are of two kinds: Tuluva traditional references as embodied in the Grāmapaddhati, and non-Tuluva references as given in Kannada works of comparatively modern times. While dealing with the origin of the Sudra tenants of the thirty-two gramas, the Gramapaddhati relates that among the captives brought by Candrangada from the Pāndvadeśa was one Pommadava, a widow who had been excommunicated for having associated with a Sūdra called Bappa or Badda Dāsa. She had eleven children, the eldest of whom was Kavaca Dasa. These eleven sons were the progenitors of the Nadavars of Tuluva. Neither the Grāmapaddhati of Bhattācārva nor the Puttige version of the same mentions this absurd account of the origin of the Nādavars.2

vague and unconvincing suppositions. Equally unconvincing is the suggested identification between the Satiyaputa of the Edicts and the word Satiya putra (or Satyavatī putra) which forms one of the birudas of the legendary hero Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya. Mr. Govinda Pai, The Kanara High School Magazine, I. No. 2, p. 65 seq. No. 3, p. 101. Mr. Pai has made another attempt to identify Satiyaputa with Tuļuva. Dr. Krishnaswami Aiyangar Commemoration Volume 1936, pp. 33-47. Even if we assume that Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya belonged to the early centuries of the Christian era, this identification is erroneous, since Bhūtāļa Pāṇḍya would then belong to the 1st century A.D., while the Edicts of Aśoka range from B. C. 258 or B. C. 257 onwards. Smith, O. H. I., p. 103. (London, 1928). This disparity in the age is enough to disprove the identification. B. A. S.

- 1. The Mangalore version.
- 2. The Nāḍavars have been eulogized by Nṛpatuṅga Deva in his $Kavir\bar{a}j$ $am\bar{a}rga$, thus :

subhatarkal kavigal-su- | prabhugal calvarkal-a- | Now, all that we may venture to say in regard to the name Bappa or Badda Dāsa occurring in Tuluva tradition, is that it may have been a clumsy rendering of the name of the Buddhist leader Badda Dāsa. But it must be admitted that this is only a conjecture, since there is no proof to maintain that the Buddhist leader of Ceylon had anything to do with Tuluva.¹

Devacandra (A.D. 1838) in his Rājavaļi-kathe refers to the prevalence of Buddhism in Tuļuva.²

Neither the later nor the earlier notices of the spread of Buddhism are so convincing as the following considerations which refer in unmistakable terms to the prevalence of Buddhism in Tuluva in the early centuries of the Christian era. At Kadri, a suburb of Mangalore, are some caves called popularly "Pāṇḍava caves". These are identical with the numerous Buddhist caves which were used as places of retreat in the southern parts of the peninsula, and which have been

bhijanarka! guniga! || abhimāniga! atyuggrar || gabhira-cittar vivēkiga! Nāḍavargg:! ||

Kavirājamārgga, II. v. 26. In an earlier connection he remarks thus: Kannaḍakke Nāḍavar ōjar. Ibid, I. v. 42. Mr. S. B. Joshi identifies the Nāḍavars mentioned here with the Nāḍavars of Tuļuva. Mahārāṣṭrada Mūla p. 9. (Dharwar, 1934). Mr. D. R. Bendrey, M.A., tells me that the Nāḍavars were the same as the Naṭas of early India history. B. A. S.

^{1.} On Badda Dāsa, read, Codrington. A Short History of Ceylon, pp. 29, 34. (London, 1926). Mr. Aygal places Badda Dasa in the twelfth century A.D. Daksina Kannada Jilleya Prācīna Itihāsa, pp. 315-6.

^{2.} Rice, Mys. Insc., Intr. p. 1xxxviii; E. C. II., p. 45 (1st ed.).

assigned to an age ranging from the second to the sixth century of the Christian era. We shall presently see that Kadarikā was a Buddhist centre even so late as the tenth century A.D.

Another consideration which prompts one to maintain that Buddhism was popular in early times in Tuluva is the fact of the existence of numerous stones called śāstāvu kallu, or as in some places, śāstāveśvara. Almost every temple, especially in the Uḍipi tāluka, has a special shrine called the śāstāvu guḍi. Thus in the well known Ananteśvara temple at Uḍipi, there is the guḍi of Śāsatāveśvara, while in the Śankaranārāyaṇa temple at Koḍavūru near Uḍipi, there is likewise a śāstāvu guḍi. Daily worship is being done to the deities in these guḍis.² At Ubaraḍika Muttūru, sixteen miles north of Sulya, and at Koḍipāḍi, four miles west of Puttūr, are two temples of the śāstāvu god. The word śāstāvu, according to Amrasimha, is one of the names of Buddha:—

Munīndraḥ S'righanaḥ S'āstā-muniḥ S'ākya-muniḥ-tu yaḥ \\
sa-S'ākya-simhaḥ Sarvārtha-siddhaḥ S'auddhodaniḥ-ca saḥ \\
Gautamaḥ-ca-Arkabaṇdhuḥ-ca Māyā-devī-sutaḥ-cā saḥ \|\^3\)

It is not unlikely that the \$\sigma satavu kallu and the \$\sigma satavu gods worshipped in Tuluva today are the relics

^{1.} Ep. Rept. of the S. Circle for 1907, pp. 60-61.

^{2.} A village called Śāstāvu lies south of the grāma of Kokkaraņe, near Surālu in the Udipi taluka. No trace of Buddhism can be seen here. But I am told that there is a Trimurti (image?) in Śāstāvu. Then again there is a village called Śāstana near Śāligrāma, also in the same tāluka. B. A. S.

^{3.} Amarakośa, I. 14-15.

of those far-off times when Buddhism was one of the most important religions of the land.

Names of goddesses and of towns afford, again, clues to the history of Buddhism in ancient Tuluva. Of the names of towns, we shall select only one well known example - Mangalore. This town has two other names-Māyikal and Kodiyāl. Of these the latter is applied to the northern part of the town to what is still known as Kodiyāļa-guttu. This name is neither so popular nor so ancient as the other name Māyikaļ, which is the designation of the original part of the town in the south. Māyikaļ is derived from Māyā-kaļa or Māyākana, meaning "The abode (space, place) of Māyā". The name, therefore appropriately describes the "Town of Maya". Now, when we realize that the patron diety of Mangalore is Mangala Devi, also called Ādi Devī, whose well known temple stands in the very locality called Māyikal; and that Mangalā Devī or Ādi Devi seems to have been no other than the Buddhist goddess Tārā Bhagavatī,1 we may well understand why Mangalore was called Māyā-kala, or the Town of Māyā.

Other facts support this assumption of ours. Mangalore is just two and a half miles south of Kadirikā, which, as will be proved presently, contained a Buddhist vihāra. One may not be far wrong in assuming that the temple of Māyā or Mangala was in some manner connected with the vihāra at Kadarikā. More-

^{1.} Mangala is another name of Tara. JRAS for 1894, p. 85.

over, the present day custom of offerings animal sacrifices to the goddess Mari Ammā, whose shrine is not far from the temple of the goddess Mangalā, strikingly recalls one feature of the goddess Durgā who, as pointed out by us elsewhere, was no other than the Brahmanical counterpart of Tārā Bhagavatī.

The Udipi tāluka contains many places which seem to have been once centres of Buddhist worship. In an earlier connection we mentioned four religious places reputed to have been created by Paraśurāma in order to guard Udipi. These were Kunjāru, Indrāni, Kannarapādi, and Puttūru. Divesting the tradition of its Pauranic garb, it seems that these four places were no other than Buddhist centres. At least the name

^{1.} Cf. Saletore, The Wild Tribes in Indian History, pp. 26-27, 29. The Mahālingeśvara temple at Tenkanidiyūru, also called Belkale, near Udipi, and the Sankaranārāvana temple at Kodavūru, also near Udipi, may have been likewise originally Buddhist centres. They contain śāstāvu gudis. The Visņumurti temple at Kidiyūru, also a suburb of Udipi, was in all probability Buddhist in origin. A close examination of this temple has revealed the following: 1. The structure and shape of this temple recalls that of the Anantesvara temple at Udipi and the vihāra at Kadirikā. 2. Of the Visnumūrti temple and the Yaksini gudi at Kidiyuru, the latter is older. This Yaksini was Cāmuņdeśvari, i.e., Durgā. The wooden image of Cāmuņdeśvarī has been done away with because it was eaten by white ants. The priest of the temple was, however, unable to tell me as to when the image of Cāmundeśvari was destroyed. 3. The lingas in the outer prākāra of the temple show that the Visnumūrti temple was once Saivite. That is to say, originally a Buddhist vihāra, it must have passed first into the hands of the Saivites, and then into those of the Vaisnavites. B. A. S.

^{2.} Some accounts substitute Bailūru for Kunjāru, and Kadi yāļi for Indrāni. B. Srinivasa Acarya, *Udipi-Kṣetra Mahimā*, p. 4 (Udipi, 1923).

Durgā Bhagavatī given to the goddess of Puttūru clearly suggests this.¹ This is further proved by the bare name of goddess Bhagavatī given to the goddess, as in Niruvāra (Nīlāvara) in the same Uḍipi tāluka. It was to this temple of the goddess Bhagavatī that, as narrated in connection with the events of the reign of the king Vīra Pāṇḍya Ālupendradeva, a gift of money was made by his queen Balla Mahā Devī in the presence of the ministers and others.² The goddess Bhagavatī was also called Durgā as in A.D. 1345, when a gift was made to her in the reign of the Ālupa king Vīra Kulašekhara Ālupendradeva II.³

In the Kārkaļa tāluka, too, there seem to have been centres which were originally Buddhist in origin. The Durgā Parameśvarī temple to which a gift of land seems to have been made, as recorded in an undated and damaged inscription of the Ālupa king Kāmadeva, was evidently in the hands of the Buddhists before it

^{1.} It may be recalled here that the goddess Durgā Bhagavatī of Puttūru was well known as a protectoress and a saviouress. This is exactly one of the attributes of the Buddhist goddess Tārā. Was the god Hayagrīva of the Sōde Maṭha of Uḍipi originally a Buddhist Mahāyāna deity? On Hayagrīva, read Bhattacharyya, Buddhist Iconography, pp. 37, 68 seq. (London-Calcutta, 1924); Sādhanamālā, II, p. 508, (Baroda, 1928). B. A. S.

^{2. 491} af 1928-9, op. cit.

^{3. 496} of 1928-9, op. cit. We may not be far wrong in assuming that the famous goddess Mūkāmbikā of Kollūru in the Kundāpura tāluka, may have been originally Buddhist. Mūkāmbikā is celebrated as a goddess of learning. This attribute she shares with Mañjuśrī; but it must be admitted that there is no proof forthcoming in support of our assumption. B. A. S.

^{4. 477} of 1928-9, op. cit.

had passed into those of the Saivites. There is every reason to believe that the goddess now known as Gauri in the suburb of Mūdubidre called Prāntya, was originally known as Durgā. This is proved by two records dated A. D. 1205-6 and A. D. 1215 respectively of the times of Kulaśekhara Ālupendradeva I. In both these inscriptions the goddess is called Durgā Devī and not Gaurī. Two and a half centuries later in A.D. 1444 during the reign of Kulaśekhara Ālupendradeva IV, the same name is applied to the goddess. This suggests that the name Gaurī must have been applied to the goddess after the middle of the fifteenth century A.D.

To the names Ādi Devī, Durgā, Durgā Bhagavatī, or merely Bhagavatī, which indicate the Buddhist origin of the temples under review, we may add one more name which proves beyond doubt the prevalence of Buddhism in early Tuļuva. This is the name Bhaṭṭārakī applied to the goddess at Poļali. As is related in an undated inscription of the Ālupa prince Kumāra Pāṇḍya Jayasingarasa, a gift of land was made by him to the goddess Hoļala Bhaṭṭārakī. From this we may reasonably assure that the well known Poḷali Durgā Parameśvarī of the modern times was no other than Hoḷala Bhaṭṭārakī of the early ages. 3

- 1. 51 and 52 of 1901, op. cit.
- 2. 380 of 1901, op. cit.

^{3.} It cannot be made out whether Udayāvara itself was once under the Buddhist influence. One of the inscriptions cited above calls Raṇasāgara Sambukallu Bhaṭṭāraka. The title Bhaṭṭāraka stands

The next consideration concerning the existence of Buddhism in Tuluva hails from Kadri or Kadirikā, near Mangalore. The fact of the Ālupa ruler Kundavarmarasa having set up the image of Lokeśvara in the vihāra of Kadirikā is enough to prove that that centre was originally a Buddhist monastery. The appellation of vihāra used for the locality and the identification of the image of Lokeśvara itself support our assumption. Lokeśvara was essentially a Buddhist god. This is proved by an inscription which commemorates the construction by a Jayanta chief of a Buddha vihāra at

no doubt for rājā as well as for priest. Amarasimha uses it as a synonym for rājā. Amarakośa, Nātyavarga, 13. Kalidāsa used the term Bhattaraka to mean an official: Bhattaraka ito'rdham vusmakam sumano mulyam bhavatu. Sākuntalam, VI, pravešaka. The Jainas used that appellation for their rulers as well as for their priests. But, as explained elsewhere, Jainism was introduced in Tuluva in the ninth century A.D. The biruda Sambukallu Bhattāraka, therefore, has to be referred to a non-Jaina origin of an earlier date. It may be argued that Sambu being another name of Siva, the expression has to be interpreted in the sense of "Bhattaraka of Sambukallu" (i.e., king or great lord of Sambukallu). This is unintelligible. So we have to interpret Bhattaraka in the Buddhist sense of worshipper. This would mean that Ranasagara was "A worshipper of Sambukallu" (i.e., the stone of Siva = Linga). Two other expressions occurring in the same stone inscriprion are to be noted. These are Sivalliya Brahmapuram mareda mahāpātakam-akku and Avīci mahā-narakakke bhāgyam akkum. Whether the reference is to the Brahman conception of pañca-mahāpātakam as explained by Manu (XI. 55) or to the Buddhist idea of the same (Cf. Fleet, Cor. Insc. Indic. III. p. 34 n,), it cannot be made out. Again the reference to the hell called Avici is not clear. The Hindus considered Avici as one of the narakas (Amarkośa, IX, Narakayarga, 1), But the Mahāvāna Buddhists have also described Avīci in detail. Āryamañjuśrīmūlakalpa, Part III. pp. 635, 664-665. (Trivandrum Skt. Series, No. LXXXIV. Trivandrum 1925). Cf. Jayaswal, Imperial History of India, p. 54, vv. 732-738. (Lahore, 1934).

Balligāve by the Mahāpradhāna Dandanāyaka Rūpabhatṭayya, to provide for which and for the worship of Tārā Bhagavatī, the gods Keśava, Lokeśvara and Buddha, he made ample endowments which are specified in detail. This is related in an inscription dated A.D. 1065.1

Indeed, Lokesvara was no other than the northern Buddhist Boddhisattva Avalokiteśvara. He is represented as the consort of Tara. The image of Lokesvara at Kadirika is, on the whole, in conformity with that described in the northern texts. He is described as indigo-coloured with three faces which are black, white and red. The first pair of hands embraces red lasya mātri and holds vaira and bell; the second pair holds an upper garment of human skin; and the third holds damaru and skull with blood. And he has a khatvānga in his arm pit, and he is adorned with jewels. The absence of other details given in the northern texts, viz., that his left leg flexed rests on Isvara, and the right extended rests on Sītā; and his orange hair being adorned with udumvara flowers2-may be explained by saying that the difference is due to the local atmosphere.

The statement in the same inscription found on the pedestal of the image of Lokeśvara, that the Ālupa king Kundavarmarasa removed the evil of grink (surāpāna kṛtodośo yena ājñā nirākrtaḥ); the general shape of

^{1.} E.C. VII. Sk. 170, p. 112.

^{2.} Waddell, JRAS for 1894, pp. 82-83.

the temple of Kadri which people call now Mañjunātha temple, but which is like the shape of the Ananteśvara temple at Udipi, recalling more a Buddhist vihāra than a Hindu temple; and the existence of Buddhist caves on to adjoining hill—these support our suggestion that Kadirikā was essentially a Buddhist centre in the tenth century A.D.¹

We have now to inquire into the causes of the decline of Buddhism in Tuluva. Buddhism certainly was never the religion of the rulers of Tuluva. Almost till the middle ages the names of the most prominent Mahāyāna goddess survived in Tuluva. But grave causes had already brought about the decline of Buddhism outside Tuluva. Of these the most important was the advance of Jainism the champions of which inflicted crushing defeats on Buddhist disputants, by the seventh century A.D., in Kañci and other well known Hindu capitals. Then came the rise of Advaitism under the great Sankarācārya somewhere in the middle of the eighth century A.D. But the most potent cause which brought about the disappearance

^{1.} These considerations invalidate the assertion made by the Madras Government Epigraphist Mr. Venkoba Rao that the temple was originally a Jaina one. Ep. Rept. of the S. Circle for 1921, p. 8. On the worship of Avalokiteśvara in Kāśmīra in the thirteenth century, read Sten Konow, E. I., IX. p. 301. Cowell has some remarks to make on Avalokiteśvara. I. A. VII, p. 249, seq. On Avalokiteśvara, read Bhaṭṭācāryya, Buddhist Iconography, p. 33 seq. The further identification of this image of Kadirikā will be the subject of a separate paper. B. A. S.

^{2.} For a detailed account, see the writer's forthcoming book on Buddhism.

of Buddhism from Tuluva was the strong Saivite leaning of the Alupa rulers whose religious beliefs we shall now describe in some detail.

3. ŚAIVISM

On the strength of epigraphical evidence we may definitely maintain that the predominant religion under the Ālupas was Saivism. In this section we shall first give such of the evidence as can be gathered from the stone epigraphs in regard to the faith of the Ālupas, and then deal with the history of a famous religious institution a great teacher of which was the $r\bar{a}ja$ -guru of one of the Ālupa kings.

The indigenous Nāga origin of the Ālupas, as the reader must have gathered from the remarks we made while delineating the political history of Tuluva, was perhaps responsible to some extent for the inherent Saiva tendency of the Ālupas. According to our calculation, Śrī Māramma Ālvarasar is the earliest historical figure in the Ālupa genealogy, although the Halmidi stone inscription suggests the name of an earlier king. One of the stone inscriptions in the Sambhukallu temple at Udayāvara, ends with the word Goravaru. This word refers to the Saivite priests called Sthānikas or Goravas, who have played a significant part in the religious history of the land. Another stone inscription of king Āļvarasar, also found in the

^{1. 99} of 1901, op. cit.

^{2.} This subject will be discussed separately by me elsewhere. B. A. S.

A. K. 25

same temple, not only contains the same word Goravaru, but also refers to the god Sambhukallu (i. e., Iśvara) to whom evidently a grant was made.¹

Coming to the times of Citravāhana I, we have seen how he was a patron of Brahmans learned in the Vedas. The statements that "those who enjoyed the gift were held as consecrated to the thirty-three (i. e., the gods)", and "whoever else takes or gives this is guilty of the five great sins," denote that the Saivite religious feelings remained unchanged under Citravāhana I.

There cannot be any doubt that during the reign of Raṇasāgara, Śaivism continued to be the dominant religion in Tuluva. An indiscernible bond connected Udayāvara with the well known city of Humccha or Paṭṭi Pombucchapura. This is evident from the manner in which a vīragal found in Udayāvara ends. It deals, as we have already seen, with the death of a follower of Raṇasāgara named Viñja Praharabhūṣaṇa's son Kāmakōḍa in an encounter with the followers of Śvetavāhana, the rival of Raṇasāgara. The vīragal narrates that Kāmakōḍa "pulled out the tongue of those who were not attached to the Paśupata lord...", and seized, and destroyed, and assaulted those who were not attached to the lord of Paṭṭi.²

The veneration of the people for one of the most celebrated spots in Tuluva, associated with the name

^{1. 96} of 1901, op. cit.

^{2. 108} of 1901, op. cit.

of Siva-S'iva-halli (The village of Siva)—is seen in a record of king Prthvisagara (A.D. 730-A.D. 750) which not only reiterates the close relationship between Udavāvara and Patti, but also gives another significant detail which unfortunately for want of adequate data has to remain unexplained. This epigraph narrates that those who destroyed the grant would "be covered with the five great sins (of one) who destroys Vāranāsi and Sivalli"; while he who confirmed it would acquire "the fruit of a horse-sacrifice." To the Tuluvas, therefore, Sivalli was as celebrated and holy as Benares. But why the merits of a horse-sacrifice which are met with for the first time only in this record, should have been mentioned here, we are unable to explain. Perhaps the horse-sacrifice is associated with the valour of king Prthvīsāgara. While dealing with the public grants in the reign of king Vijayāditya, we noted in an earlier context the references to the fruits of a horse-sacrifice and the importance of Sivalli and Vāraņāsi.2 Another inscription registering a gift to the god Subrahmanya, also noted in the previous pages, conclusively proves the strong Saivite tendency of that ruler.3

More than two centuries later we come across interesting facts concerning the spiritual teacher of the

^{1. 102} of 1901, op. cit. On the villages comprising Sivalli, see infra Appendix.

^{2. 98} of 1901, op. cit.

^{3. 372} of 1927, op. cit.

Alupa king and the lineage to which he belonged. This is gathered from a damaged stone inscription found in the Someśvara temple at Mūdukēri in Bārakūru. The original in Kannada runs thus:—

S'rī Gaṇādhipataye namaḥ (śubha)m-astu svasti śrīmatu Durvāsa(s) munīndra-vaṃśa-tilaka...ya saṅtati sañjātar-appa śrīmat Gagana-S'iva-ācāryarige Dattāļpendra śrī-Māra Oḍḍama Devīgaļu Bārahakanyā-purada piriya-aramaneyalu hattu-kēriya halaru muntāgi Kārakaļada Kadurabe(la)m-beṭṭina tamma brahmadāyada...(vai)tti a 60 mūḍe bittuva (ba)yalanu je...yalu nakharā muntāgi biṭṭaru pūjeya (dhā) reyaneredu koṭṭaru ā-bhūmi avara saṅtati saṅtatiya śrimaṭhakke naḍuvudu yī dharmavannu ar(a)su nāḍu nakhara pāl(i)si bahavaru yī dharmavannu arkeḍisida...Vāraṇāsiyalu 108 kavileyanu Brāhmaranu koṅda doṣa sva-dattām paradattām... (the epigraph breaks off here).

The contents of the above grant are briefly the following:—Dattālpendra Śrimāra and his queen Oḍḍama Devī seated in the senior palace at Bāraha-kanyāpura, in conjunction with the citizens of the ten streets (hattu kēri) and others, gave to Gagana Śivācārya a gift of land in which sixty muras of rice could be sowed, situated in the high-level ground (beṭṭu) called Kadurabelambeṭṭu of Kārkaļa. This gift was given in perpetuity to the maṭha to which Gagana Śivācārya belonged. The king, (the representatives of) the district, and the municipal corporation (arasu nāṭu nakhara) were to protect the dharma (gift).

1. 124 of 1901, S. I. I. VII. No. 134, p. 165.

The above grant is important from the following points of view:—

- (1) It confirms the evidence supplied by other records concerning the corporate life of the Tuļu people.
- (2) The clauses at the end-sva dattām para-dattām-etc., show that the people as well as the engravers in Tuluva were not unaware of the Pauranic sanction underlying the protection and violation of grants.
- (3) It gives us the name of a new Ālupa ruler-Dattāļpendra Śrīmāra-, whose date we can determine by fixing the date of his spiritual teacher.
- (4) The inscription gives interesting details concerning the guru of Dattāļpendra Śrīmāra. He was called Gagana Śivācārya, and he had the biruda ornament to the spiritual lineage of Durvāsas, and another indistinct birudu which ends in the words...va santāti sanjātar-appa (one produced [arisen] in).

The inscription is however undated. We have to fix the age of Gagana Sivācārya, and of his royal disciple. This can be done only when we find out the antecedents of the spiritual line to which Gagana Sivācārya belonged.

Gagana Śivācārya mentioned in the Bārakūru inscription is to be identified with Gagana Śiva to whom, on Wednesday the 9th March A.D. 959 (Śaka 880 expired the cyclic year Kāļāyukta, Wednesday, the 13th tithi of the dark fortnight of Phālguṇa), the village of Kankem (mod. Kanki in the Junior Mirāj state) in the Karahāṭa

district, was granted by the Rāṣṭrakūṭa monarch Kṛṣṇa III Akālavarṣa Vallabha. The donee is praised as one "versed in all the Śaiva siddhāntas, the pupil of the preceptor Īśanaśiva, who is the head of the establishment of Valkaleśvara in Karahāṭa, and is an emigrant of the Kārañja-kheṭa group (of villages)".

Before we proceed to narrate a few details based on epigraphical evidence concerning the matha to which Isanasiva and his disciple Gagana Sivācārya belonged, we may note that the age of Dattālpendre Śrimāra A.D. 959 agrees very well with the conclusions we have arrived at while delineating the Ālupa chronology. Dattālpendra Śrīmāra would, therefore, have to be placed after Ālva Raṇañjaya and before Kundavarmā II.

From the above grants relating to land in Kārkaļa in Tuļuva and in Kankem in Karahāṭa, it appears that Īśana Śivācārya and his successor Gagana Śivācārya were reckoned to be the heads of the Valkaleśvara maṭha in Karahāṭa in the ninth century A.D.; and that Gagana Śivācārya, and, therefore, his preceptor too, belonged to the spiritual lineage founded by the sage Durvāsas.

Which is the institution associated with the name of the sage Durvāsas? How, when, and where did it originate? And over which parts of the land did its

1. D. R. Bhandarkar, E. I. IV. pp. 278-290. Hultzsch wrote in a note (n. 1) on the above (p. 290) "or perhaps a descendant of the (spiritual). lineage of (the matha at) Karañja-kheta." This, on the evidence of the Bārakūru record, is inadmissible. Dr. Bhandarkar's interpretation—"group of villages"—is, therefore, correct. B. A. S.

branches spread? These questions will now be answered.

The sage Durvāsas, founder of the spiritual line to which Gagana Śivācārya belonged, appears in many Tāntric works as the preceptor presiding over the Āmarṭaka maṭha.¹ The Tantric literature is said to have been introduced into the world by him. He is is credited with the composition of the works $Pr\bar{a}$ \$aktimahimnāh in praise of the goddess $Pr\bar{a}$ \$aktimahimnāh in praise of the goddess $Pr\bar{a}$ \$akti, $Ary\bar{a}$ dvicati, $Dev\bar{a}$ mahimnāh-stotram, Para\$aiva mahimnāh-stotram,

But the identification of the Āmartaka matha reputed to have been founded by the sage Durvāsas, is a difficult matter. The few historical notices of the institution associated with the name of that sage, bring to light another matha which had its origin in the north, but which in course of time spread its influence over the south and the west. We meet with the name of the sage Durvāsas in the history of the Dahalamandala situated between the rivers Bhagirathī (Ganges) and the Narmadā. The Dahala (or Dabhala) country was conterminous with the Cedi country in Central India,

1. Hultzsch, Report on Skt. Mss. No. 2, Intr. p. xvi, seq.

^{2.} Aufrecht, Catalogus Catalogorum, I. p. 257; II. p. 55. Nirmala Muni Guru of Tiruvalur in the Tanjore district, in his Laghuprabhā, a commentary on Aghora Śivācārya's Kriya-karma-dyotika, relates that the Tantric literature originated with the sage Durvāsas. Ep. Rept. of the Southern Circle, for 1917, p. 126. In the Laksmīnārāyaṇa temple at Hesaraghaṭṭa, in the Mysore State, the god about two feet high is seated on a high pedestal. He is said to have been worshipped by the sage Durvāsas. Mys. Arch. Rept. for 1916, p. 26.

with Tripuri (mod. Tewār, about six miles from Jubbulpore) as its capital. In a record of about A.D. 1162, we are informed that Kṛṣṇa, the progenitor of the Kalacuriyas, had seized the Nine Lakh Dahala country and had made it his own. Three Lakhs (of villages out of the nine lakhs) became the property of the followers of the sage Durvāsas.

These and other interesting details are given in the huge Malakāpuram pillar inscription of the Kākatīva queen Rudra Mahādevī dated Saka 1183 (A.D. 1261, March the 25th). This epigraph records the gift of the villages of Mandara on the south bank of the Krsnaveni, and of Velangapundi (Velagapudi), to the teacher Viśveśvara Sambhu, by the queen. inscription relates that in the line of Saiva teachers founded by the sage Durvasas, appeared Sadbhava Sambhu, who received from the Kalacuriva king Yuvarāja Deva as a maintenance gift (bhiksā) the Three Lakh Province. This teacher founded a matha called Golaki matha and transferred the Three Lakh Province for the maintenance of the teachers of that matha. Golaki or Golagi was a contraction of Golagiri in Navalaksa Dahala Tripuri.2

The age of Sadbhava Sambhu can be determined in the following manner:—He was the contemporary of the Kākatīya Yuvarāja Deva whom we take to be the first of that name. Now, the date of Yuvarāja Deva

^{1.} E. C. XI. Dg. 42, p. 53.

^{2. 253} of 1905.

himself is not known but it may be fixed thus: Yuvarāja Deva I's daughter Kundakā Devī married Amoghavarṣa II of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa family. King Amoghavarṣa II's brother king Govinda IV's dates are known: A.D. 918-A.D. 933. Likewise do we know that king Amoghavarṣa II's contemporary king Kṛṣṇa III lived from A.D. 939 till A.D. 968. Therefore, it is reasonable to assign Amoghavarṣa II to about A.D. 920. Supposing we place the marriage of Kandukā Devī with Amoghavarṣa II in circa A. D. 920, we may assign her father Yuvarāja Deva I to about A.D. 900.¹ If this is allowed, then, Sadbhava Śambhu, the contemporary of king Yuvarāja Deva I, may have lived in about A.D. 900.

The Malakāpuram pillar inscription of queen Rudra Mahādevī informs us that in the same line was born Soma Sambhu, who composed in his own name the work called Somašambhupaddhati. He had thousands of disciples who, it is interesting to note, were by their mere sight capable of blessing or cursing lords of the earth. It cannot be made out, however, how many teachers intervened between Sadbhava Sambhu and Soma Sambhu.

^{1.} Read Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dts. pp. 32, and dynastic table on p. 57 (1st ed.).

^{2. 94} of 1917; Ep. Rept. of the S. Circle for 1917, pp. 123-125.

^{3.} The assumption of Aufrecht that Soma Sambhu was the pupil of Sa-Siva, who has been identified with Sadbhava Siva, and that he flourished in about A.D. 1073, is inadmissible. Ep. Rep. of the S. Cirele for 1917, p. 126. We have shown that Sadbhava Siva can be placed in circa A.D. 900. One century elapses before we meet with the name of Soma Sambhu. Hence the Malakāpuram pillar inscription

The Malakapuram pillar inscription further tells us that after Soma Sambhu came Sakti Sambhu, and that the pupil of the latter was Kirti Sambhu. Then came the revered Vimala Siva born in the Kerala country, who was highly respected by the Kalacuriya kings. His pupil was Dharma Siva or Dharma Sambhu whose pupil was Viśveśvara Śambhu, who administered initiation (dīkṣā) to the Kalacuriya king Gaṇapati, the father of queen Rudra Mahādevī. The same record gives a few facts concerning Viśveśvara Śambhu. He was a Vedic scholar, and a resident of the village Pūrvagrāma in the province of Rādhā of the Gauda country. The Kaļacuriya, Coda (Cola), and Mālava kings were his royal disciples. King Ganapati actually styled himself son of his teacher. "...with hanging ornaments and a high tuft of gold-coloured matted hair, a brilliant face and necklaces, the teacher Viśveśvara Sambhu seated in the hall of instruction (vidyā-mantapa) of Ganapati's palace was indeed an object worthy of sight." It was to this great teacher that queen Rudra Mahadevi gave on March the 25th A.D. 1261 the village of Mandara, as mentioned above.1

We may be permitted to mention here the successors of Viśveśvara Sambhu before passing on to the remarkable influence which the Golaki matha wielded in

merely records thus: "In the same line was born Soma Sambhu..." If we accept Aufrecht's date for Soma Sambhu, it would violate the contemporaneity of Sadbhava Sambhu with the Kaļacuriya king Yuva. rāja Deva, as given in the Malakāpuram inscription. B. A. S.

^{1.} Ep. Rept. of the S. Circle for 1917, pp. 123-125, op cit.

the Tamil and Telugu lands. In an inscription dated in the tenth regnal year of an unidentified king called Māravarman alias Tribhuvana Cakravartin Sundara Pāṇḍya, we are told that the disciple's disciple of Śrī Deśikendra of the Golaki-vaṁśa and the Lakṣādhyāyi-saṅtāna in the Āryāvarta country, was Īśana Śiva Rāvuļa.¹ The fact that Īśana Śiva Rāvuļa belonged to the Golaki-vaṁsa clearly denotes that he was of the same lineage to which Viśveśvara Śambhu belonged. From other records we know that Viśveśvara Śiva was also known as Viśveśvara Śiva Deśika.² The Śri-Deśikendra mentioned above, therefore, could have been no other than Viśveśvara Śiva Deśika.

We do not know whether Iśana Śiva Rāvuļa, who was the disciple's disciple of Viśveśvara Śiva Deśika, was the same person as the Iśana Śiva Yogīndra who, as is narrated in the stone inscription found in the Brhadāmbikā temple at Devikāpuram, North Arcot district, was the head of the Golaki maṭha, and who "obeyed the command of Śiva (i. e. died). Neither is it possible to say whether Iśana Śiva Yogīndra was the same as Iśana Śiva Ācārya of the Bhikṣā maṭha, who was one of the trustees of the same temple, and who is mentioned in a record dated Śaka 1442 (A.D. 1520-1) found in the same temple. Inscriptions ranging from Śaka 1442 till Śaka 1455 (A.D. 1533-4) have been found

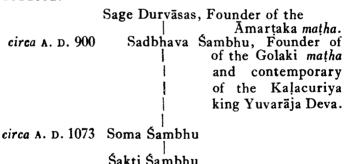
^{1. 209} of 1924; see also ibid No. 211.

^{2. 195, 223, 257, 273} and 323 of 1905. These were found at Tripurantakam in the Kurnool district.

^{3. 400} of 1912. 4. 352 of 1912.

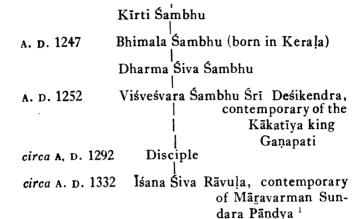
concerning Isana Siva Acārya.¹ If the Isana Siva Ācārya, trustee of the Devīkāpuram temple, is to be identified with the Isana Siva Yogīndra mentioned above, his death may be placed after A.D. 1533-4. And if we allot thirty-five years to him, it is possible that he may have lived in about A.D. 1480. His age does not agree with that of Viśveśvara Siva Deśika's disciple's disciple Isana Siva Rāvuļa who, according to the same calculation, may be placed in about A.D. 1332. We have, therefore, to assume that Isana Siva Rāvuļa was an earlier teacher of the Golaki matha.²

From the foregoing remarks the following spiritual lineage of the Golaki matha in the Dahalamandala may be deduced:—



1. 352, 356, 368, 373 of 1912.

^{2.} Devikāpuram in the North Arcot district is still the head-quarters of a line of Saivācāryas whose head is known as Sattanātha Sivācārya. These are the preceptors of certain sects of the Bēricetti Saiva merchants. It is opined that they are connected with the Jūāna Sivācāryas of Mullundrum in the same district, who are the religious preceptors of the Tamil oil-monger (vāṇiya) caste. Ep. Rept. of the S. Circle for 1924, pp. 114-115. B. A. S.



We now turn to the Golaki centres in the Tamil land. Tiruvarūr in the Tanjore district was the seat of a Saiva maṭha called the Kṛṣṇa Golaki maṭha. Nothing is known of the gurus of this line. The matha figures at the beginning of thirteenth century A.D.² Kallaḍakurucci in the Tinnevelly district had also a Saiva maṭha. Stone inscriptions dated only in the 3rd year Āvaṇi, and in the 3rd year Puraṭṭāḍi respectively, of the reign of an unidentified Jaṭāvarman Tribhuvanacakravartin Vīra

^{1.} There is a Rudra Sivācārya with dates ranging from Saka 1436 (A.D. 1514-5) to Saka 1459 (A.D. 1537) mentioned in inscriptions. (164, 172 and 179 of 1924). In what manner he was connected with the Golaki pontificate is not certain. (Ep. Rep. of S. Circle for 1924, p. 115). There is a Viśveśvara Sivācārya between Saka 1429 (A.D. 1507-8) and Saka 1446 (A.D. 1524-5). (354, 365, 389 and 390 of 1912). He was also intimately connected with the Devikāpuram temple. Evidently he was a contemporary of Iśana Sivācārya of Devikāpuram mentioned above. B. A. S.

^{2.} Ep. Rep. of the S. Circle for 1910, p. 97.

Pāṇḍya Deva, are the only sources of information for these details. In the first we are told that provision for the reading of the Tirujñāna, etc., was made in the agreement by eight Saiva Brahmans of the temple of Lakṣmīvarāhasvāmi of the same locality, to a certain Pugali Perumāļ belonging to the lineage of Jñānāmṛtācārya of the Hīļahi (i.e., Goļakī) maṭha. The other inscription records a grant of land by the Saiva Brahmans of that same temple to Aghora Deva of Jñānāmṛtācārya santāna of Golaki maṭha for the maintenance of a flower garden, etc.¹ This Aghora Deva is called Śoḷan Śīyan alias Aghora Deva of the Jiyār-santāna in a record dated only in the fourth regnal year of Māṇavarman Tribhuvanacakravartin Sundara Pāṇḍya "who was pleased to distribute the Coḷa country."²

Tirukoḍugunru alias Dakṣiṇa Kailāsa in Tirumalaināḍu also had a Golaki maṭha. The head of this maṭha was called Pāṇḍi-maṇḍalādhipati alias Lakṣādhyāyi-santānam of the Golaki maṭha. He is said to have been the pontiff of the Arubattuvūvantirumaḍam at Dakṣinā Kailāsam. The record which gives us these details is dated Śaka 142(2) (A.D. 1500-1), and it registers a gift of the village Kīlai Kuḍalur by Eppuli Nāyakar to the same high priest.³ It has been rightly surmised that he may have been a predecessor of, or identical with Iśana Śiva who is called Pāṇḍinaṭṭu (Mudaliyar), Paṇḍimaṇdalā-

^{1. 359} and 362 of 1916.

^{2. 364} of 1916.

^{3. 213} of 1924.

dhipati alias Lakṣadhyāyī-saṇtanam of Dakṣiṇa Kailāsa in Tirumalaināḍu. This inscription is dated Śaka 1452 Vikṛti (A.D.1530-1).

The Telugu land too possessed well known Galaki mathas. Of these Puspagiri² and Tripurantakam in the Kurnool district were two seats which wielded some influence in the middle of the thirteenth century A.D. The names of Santa Siva, Dharma Siva, Bhimala Siva, and Viśveśvara Siva Deśika are met with in the records discovered at Tripurantakam.³ These names are to be referred to those already seen in connection with the original Golaki matha mentioned above.⁴

In the Karnāṭaka the most prominent Golaki centre seems to have been established at Valkaleśvara in Karahāṭa to which we now revert in the description of the events concerning Tuluva.⁵ The accounts we

- 1. 193 of 1924; Ep. Rep. of the S. Circle for 1924, p. 114. Tirupparankunram in the Madura district seems to have had also a Golaki matha. Rangachari, Top List. II, No. 403 p. 1040.
 - 2. 323 of 1905.
 - 3. 195, 223, 273 and 323 of 1905.
- 4. A Jñāna Śivācārya and one of his successors Pañcākṣara Guru, the latter being the author of the Sanskrit work Snapanasārāvalī, are met with in certain Mss. Hultzsch, Rep. on Skt. Mss. II. Intr. p. xviii. A stone inscription discovered in Alugurajupalle, Palnad tāluka, Guntur district, and dated only in the sixty-third (regnal?) year of the Kākatīya king Gaṇapatideva Mahārāja, mentions a Golaki maṭha. 289 of 1930-1931.
- 5. Two stone inscriptions contain some details about the Mūlasthānadeva temple at Mūlgunda (?). One is dated only in the seventh regnal year of the Western Cālukya monarch Trailokyamalla Someśvara I, i.e., in A.D. 1049-50 (the date of his accession being A.D. 1042). It records an assignment of the income by Holli Gāvunda, chief of

have given of the original Golaki matha and of some of its branches in the Tamil and Telugu lands, suggest that the two teachers of the Valkaleśvara matha—Iśana Śiva and his disciple Gagana Śiva—cannot be referred to any of the centres in the Telugu and Tamil lands. At the present stage of our investigations, we are unable to find out when the Valkaleśvara matha was established, and likewise the history of its pontificate prior to the times of Gagana Śivācārya's predecessor Iśana Śivācārya.

What we may maintain is that the Ālupa king Dattāļpendra was the disciple of Gagana Śivācārya, that the latter was called the ornament of the spiritual lineage of Durvāsas, and that, therefore, his matha was in all likelihood in Karahāṭa. The fact that his matha was in Karahāṭa and that his royal disciple was in Tuļuva need not come in the way of our establishing a spiritual relationship between them. We have to remember that since the beginning of Ālupa history the rulers of Udayāvara were intimately connected

Hosavūru, to Gangarasi Pandita, the acārya of the temple of Mulasthāna, for the feeding of ascetics. (108 of Appendix F copied in Bombay-Karnataka. Ep. Rep. of the S. Circle for 1926-7). Another record dated Saka 984 Subhakrt, Pausya Su. 5 Monday (A.D. 1062, Friday the 18th January, the week day not corresponding) relates that the Mahāsāmanta Aycarasa was administering the Mūlgunda Twelve district, when the settis of Mūlgunda made a gift of land after purchasing it from Bēllāļa Sōyamayya, to Dhruvesvara Pandita, disciple of Gangarasi Pandita, for feeding ascetics, etc. (84 of Appendix F copied in Bombay-Karnataka; Ep. Rep. ibid; Swamikannu, Ind. Eph. III. p. 126). We cannot make out in what manner these two teachers were related to the Golaki matha. B. A. S.

with the Karnāṭaka. It was not only political proximity but cultural contiguity as well that brought the Ālupa kings under the tutelage of the Saiva Ācāryas of the Karnāṭaka.

King Dattalpendra's successor was king Kundavarmarasa II. In the Sanskrit-Grantha inscription engraved on the pedestal of the Lokesvara god at Kadirikā, as already narrated above, we are told that S'rī Kundavarmā Gunava(ā)n Aļuvendro mahīpatih pāda(ā) ravinda bhramaro Bālacandra S'khāmaneh. This proves that Balacandra Sikhamani was the royal preceptor of the Alupa king Kundavarmā II. It cannot be made out whether Balacandra Sikhamani was of the same spiritual lineage to which Gagana Sivācārva belonged. The name Bālacandra Śikhāmani is not met with in any of the records dealing with the leaders of the Golaki matha in the Tamil, Telugu, or Karnātaka lands. On the other hand, Balacandra was a name common among the Jaina gurus. But the installation of the Lokesvara image in the vihāra of Kadirikā, and the marked leaning which the king showed to the Brahmans, as is evident from the statement—dvijanam agraharebhyah caru caritra sā(śā)linā—reveal conclusively that Kundavarmarasa II was thoroughly Saivite in his faith. Future finds alone may show that Balacandra Sikhamani was perhaps the successor of Gagana Sivācārya in the pontificate of the Valkaleśvara matha.

^{1. 27} B of 1901, op. cit.

A. K. 26

The Ālupas continued to be devotees of Siva till the times of Kulasekhara Ālupendradeva I, i.e., till the first quarter of the thirteenth century A.D. This is proved by the grants made in the presence of gods Mārkandesvara and Nakharesvara in Bārakūru, and of the goddess Durgā either by the kings themselves or by citizens in the presence of the officers of the rulers.¹

But the age of Kulasekhara Ālupendradeva I also witnessed the rise into prominence of another religion which had already been introduced into Tuluva, and which had made rapid progress over the whole of the Karnāṭaka. This was Jainism into the history of which at least so far as it concerns our topic, we shall presently enquire with the aid of contemporary epigraphs and tradition. But that the account of Saivism under the Ālupas may be complete, we shall give such of the brief notices of that religion as are met with in the Ālupa records of the successors of Kulasekhara Ālupendradeva I.

Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva Ālupendradeva I (A.D. 1254-1267) and his queen Balla Mahādevī continued to bestow patronage on the Śaivite centres of Koṭa, Brahmāvūru, Niruvāra, and Puttige, in the Uḍipi tāluka, as their epigraphs amply prove. Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva's son and successor Nāgadevarasa (A.D. 1292-98) likewise was a

^{1. 171} and 176 of 1901, op. cit.; 52 of 1901, op. cit.

^{2. 370} af 1927; 485 of 1928-9; 490 of 1928-9; 491, 500 and 509 of 1928-9.

Saivite. His gift to the god Nakhareśvara of Basarūru in A.D. 1292 bears evidence to his Saivite faith. His successor Bankideva Alupendradeva II gave public testimony to the liberal views which had characterized the Alupa family, when he made grants (specified in detail) in A.D. 1302 to the gods Brahmā, Visnu, and Maheśvara. The next ruler Sovideva Alupendradeva was an avowed Saivite. He himself granted gifts in the orthodox manner to the god Somanātha in Manigārakēri at Bārakūru in A.D. 1315.3 The muchdamaged inscription dated A.D. 1345 of the reign of Vīra Kulašekhara Ālupendradeva II, recording a gift to the temple of Durgā Bhagavatī, * as narrated already, gives us scope to assert that the Saivite tradition at the Alupa court continued unimpaired till the middle of the fourteenth century A.D. In fact, the gifts made by Vīra Pāndyadeva Ālupendradeva II (A.D. 1346-A.D. 1366) to the servants of Bhārata Tīrtha Śrīpāda of Śringerī,5 only confirm our surmise.

But with his successor Kulasekhara Ālupendradeva III, in the last quarter of the fourteenth century A.D., Jainism which, since the days of Kulasekhara Ālupendradeva I, had remained in the background, now appears prominently at the court of the Ālupa monarch. Saivism, however, had taken too deep roots in the Ālupa

^{1. 415} of 1927-8, op. cit.

^{2. 17} of 1901, op. cit.

^{3. 157} of 1901, op. cit.

^{4. 496} of 1928-9, op. cit.

^{5.} My. Arch. Rept. for 1916, p. 57, op. cit.

mind: Hence we find the stone grant (śilā-śāsanam) given to the god Bankeśvara of Mangaļūru by the last of the Ālupa kings Kulaśekhara Ālupendradeva IV, as recorded in the Kanara High School stone inscription dated only in the cyclic year Raktākṣi but assignable to A.D. 1441.¹ Nevertheless Jainism had already made sufficient progress in Tuļuva by this time, and we have now, therefore, to describe the manner in which it came to be so conspicuous in Tuļuva.

4. JAINISM

The main sources of information for the study of Jainism in Tuluva are the Hindu and Jaina tradition, epigraphs, and Jaina literature as preserved in the libraries of Jaina centres of Mūḍubidre and Kārkaļa. But since the last named source is inaccessible to the student of history, we have to rely mainly on the Jaina and Hindu tradition coroborated by the notices of Jainism in epigraphs discovered in Tuluva.

Hindu tradition contains notices of Jaina rsis who are said to have introduced Jainism into a part of Tuluva. The Viṣṇu Purāṇa, for example, states that Rṣabha, the son of Nābhi by his queen Meru, having ruled with equity and wisdom, and having celebrated many sacrifices, resigned the soveregnity of the earth to his eldest son Bharata—after whom the earth came to be known as Bharatavarṣa—, and retiring to the hermitage of Pulastya, adopted the life of a sanyāsin. He

^{1. 23} B of 1901.

practised such rigorous penance that he was reduced to a mere collection of skin and fibres, and while in this state, went the way of all flesh.¹

The wanderings of this great teacher Rsabha are given in greater detail in the Bhagavata Purana which contains some details that are of interest to the student of Tuluva history. Like unto a potter's wheel moving by itself, Rsabha's body went to Konka, Venkata, Kūtaka, and southern Karnātaka where in the forest adjoining to the Kūtaka mountain he threw some pebbles into his mouth and then began to move about naked and with dishevelled hair like a maniac. Thereupon a dreadful forest-fire, caused by the bamboos striking one against the other on account of the terrible wind, burnt his body along with the entire forest. Being informed of the conduct (of Rsabha) the king of Konka, Venkata, and Kūtaka, named Arhat shall himself learn it, and shall, forsaking his own religion, fearlessly institute the false religion with the Pasandhas by his own understanding.2

The Kūṭaka mentioned above could only have been the Kūṭakagrāma of Tuluva.³ From the above story it appears as if the Jaina advent into Tuluva is to be dated to the early days of Rṣabha, the first Tīrthankara; and that the activities of the Jainas are to be located

^{1.} Vișnu Purāna, II. pp. 103-104. (Wilson).

^{2.} Bhāgavata Purāna, V. 6, 8, 10 and 11; ibid, V. p. 21 (Calcutta 1895).

^{3.} This subject will be dealt with in a separate paper. B. A. S.

somewhere in the region between Kūṭakagrāma and Haṭṭiangaḍi. The latter place in the Kundāpūru tāluka is no doubt still considered to be a holy centre of the Jainas, although it contains no more than a couple of Jaina houses and a Jaina basti. If we are to rely on the story of Rṣabha's wanderings, Jainism appears to have been introduced first in the region of Kundāpūru and then elsewhere in Tuļuva.¹

But the traditions current in Mūdubidre and Kārkaļa, the two strongholds of Jainism in Tuļuva, run counter to the above view. The Jaina tradition in Mūdubidre as well as in Kārkaļa dates the introduction of Jainism into Tuļuva to about the ninth century A.D. The following may be noted in this connection:—In the first place, the Jainas of Tuļuva have no memories of Paraśurāma. Unlike the Brahmans, they deny the

^{1.} These assumptions receive some support from the following stone inscription assigned to circa A.D. 950, which informs us that Jinadatta Polalol Kumbhāsikeyol mādidam Jina-gēhangalam. The same record ends with the statement that Jinadatta granted Kumbhāsepura for the anointment of Jina, etc. E. C. VII. Sh. 114, p. 37. One is inclined to identify Polalu mentioned in this record with Polalu or Polali in the Mangalore tāluka, and Kumbhasepura or Kumbhasike with Kumbhakāśi or Kumbhasike in the Udipi tāluka. This may be strengthened by the fact that at Malali, north of Polali in the Mangalore tāluka, and likewise at Hattiangadi, about five or six miles north of Kumbhakāśi, there are Jaina bastis. These arguments seem to confirm the details given above regarding Rsabha's wanderings. But this view is inadmissible. For the Kumbhasike of of the above record is to be identified with Kumsi, the place itself where the inscription was found, and the Polali of the same record was no other than its namesake mentioned in circa A.D. 890 in the same region. E. C. VII Sk. 45, p. 49.

creation of the Sapta Konkanas by Jāmadagnya. As Buchanan remarked, they merely trace the history of Jainism to Jīnadatta Rāya who was born, according to them, at Uttara Mathurā near the Jumnā. This shows that the Jainas came to the district in comparatively later times.

Secondly, the Jainas of Tuluva themselves admit that the Brahmans of Tuluva were a more ancient people. Buchanan was informed by the Jainas that the Tuluva Brahmans, who followed the Vedas, were first introduced by Mayūravarmā, a Jaina prince who lived at Bārakūru about a thousand years ago. But of this ruler the Jainas of Tuluva have no written record.² Hence the Jainas seem to have come to Tuluva in an age when even the traces of Mayūravarmā had grown dim.

Thirdly, the oldest basti in Mūdubidre is the Gurugala basti. The Jainas of Mūdubidre reckon this basti to be only 1000 years old. In other words, the Jainas of Mūdubidre would date the advent of their earliest leaders to the ninth century or thereabouts. Moreover, in that same town the Gaurī temple is admitted by the Jainas to be older than the Gurugala basti, thus proving beyond doubt that before the advent of the Jainas, Hinduism had already taken roots in that town.

Fourthly, in the same town is a quarter called halavaravarga. The Jainas of Mūdubidre assert that

^{1.} Buchanan, A Journey, III, p. 81.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 82.

this was the earliest colony of their people in that town. Evidently the Jainas settled in that quarter mainly as traders, and ultimately succeeded in converting the ruler of Mūdubidre from Hinduism into Jainism. This could only have been in later times when the Ālupas had already made Mūdubidre one of their provincial capitals. We shall presently see that epigraphical evidence supports this assumption of ours.

Fifthly, Mūdubidre was originally a centre of the Brahmans. Both the traditions of the Jainas and epigraphs prove this. The Cautars of Mūdubidre, who are now Jainas, and who removed later on their centre to Puttige, were originally Hindus, their tutelary deity (kula devatā) being the god Somanātha of Ullāļa on the coast. Buchanan relates in his days there were in Mūdubidre six gudis or temples belonging to Brahmans, who followed the Purāṇas, and 700 houses mostly occupied by the Brahmans of the two sects.¹

Sixthly, till A.D. 1800 when Buchanan visited the Jainas of Mūdubidre, they were ignorant of the immigration of their co-religionists from northern India to Sravana Belgola. Instead of tracing their origin to the activities of their own people from northern India or Sravana Belgola, the Jainas associated their advent with Arabia! Buchanan relates that the Jainas "allege that formerly they extended over the whole of Arya or

^{1.} Buchanan, A Journey, III. p. 75. It was evidently the Hindu propensity of the Cautars that was responsible for a settlement of a dispute between themselves and the Rājas of Kārkaļa, also recorded by Buchanan. *Ibid*.

409

Bharatakanda; and that all those whoever had any pretensions to be of Ksatri descent, were of their sect. It, no doubt, appears clear, that until the time of Rama Anuja Acharya, many powerful princes in the south of India were their followers. They say, that formerly they were very numerous in Arabia: but that about 2,500 years ago a terrible persecution took place at Mecca, by order of a king called Parasu Bhattaraka, who forced great numbers to come to this country...they suppose Parasu Bhattaraka to have been the founder of the Mussulman faith. None of them have the smallest trace of the Arabian features, but are in every respect complete Hindus." It is because the Jainas came to Tuluva in comparatively recent times that they confounded the Parasurama of Hindu tradition with an imaginary Paraśu Bhattaraka, whose antecedents are unknown to us. If the Jainas, as is maintained by some, had indeed come to Tuluva in the days of Bhadrabāhu, the memory of their advent into the district would never have been forgotten.

Moreover, the history of the pontificate of Kārkaļa reveals the late origin of the Jaina religion in Tuļuva. The Jainas of Kārkaļa trace the beginnings of Jainism to the Humccha ruler Jīnadatta. Buchanan was informed by the priests of Kārkaļa that Jīnadatta's "first son was the first Byrasu Wodeya, and all his descendants assumed that title." Although this is historically

^{1.} Buchanan, A Journey p. 80.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 81.

inaccurate, yet the fact of the memory of Jaina advent into Tuluva, at least so for as Kārkaļa is concerned, being limited to the times of Jinadatta, shows that we have to look for the beginnings of Jainism in Tuluva only after the ninth century A.D.

Indeed, this assumption of ours is further proved by the following tradition that is till current in Mudubidre: -Once a Jaina sage visited a Ballala ruler whose finger had been cut off as a punishment by his sovereign. The sage was respectfully served and waited upon by the Ballala Raya. But seeing the maimed finger of the Ballala Raya, the Jaina sage went away. At this the Ballala Raya got angry and destroyed 108 bastis of the Jainas and in their place built a tank. A whirlpool arose because of this impious deed, in the territory of the Ballala Raya, and hundreds died. Carukirti Pandita Ācārya of Belgola heard of this disaster that had happened to the Ballala king, and cured him of his illness, and saved his kingdom. Cārukīrti Paņdita Ācārya then travelled on to Nalluru near Karkala. On coming to Nallūru the Jaina teacher's elephant and his seat made up of sandal-wood (candana mane) refused to move. Cārukīrti Paņdita realised that that was the right place for building a basti which he accordingly did. A monastery (matha) was built by him there. Both the iron chain used for binding the back and the neck of the elephant and the sandal-wood seat can still be seen at Nallūru.1

^{1.} This was related to me by an old man named Derama Setti at Mūdubidre on 24. 12. 1925. B. A. S.

Inspite of its errors, the above tradition is not altogether worthless. The Śravana Belgola Jaina pontiffs were called Abhinava Cārukīrti Paņdita Ācāryas, and not merely Cārukīrti Pandita Ācāryas.1 The other detail of a Ballala Rava having had his finger cut off by his sovereign may also be dispensed with. But all the same the main part of the story, viz., that a Cārukīrti Pandita Deva cured a Ballāla king of his illness, may be made to square with the known facts of history. It is true that the name Carukirti Pandita Ācārva was assumed by many Jaina teachers. Thus the earliest Cārukīrti Pandita Deva is represented as the disciple of Municandra Traividya Bhattaraka, in a record dated in the twentieth year of the Calukya-Vikrama era $(A.D. 1076 + 20 = 1096.)^2$ There is another Cārukīrti Pandita Deva who was the disciple of Abhaya Candra Siddhānta in circa A.D. 1200.3 It cannot be made out whether he is the same as the one mentioned in A.D. 1274, and again in A.D. 1279. A later record dated A.D. 1398 informs us that Carukirti Pandita Deva cured Ballala of a terrible disease.⁵ This refers obviously to Ballala Deva I, since with the conversion of his younger brother Bittiga Deva into Vaisnavism, Jainism as the state religion of the Hoysalas fell on evil days.6

^{1.} Śravana Belgola Insc. Intr. p. 60 (1st ed.).

^{2. 74} of Bombay-Karnataka Inses. copied in the Ep. Rep. of the S. Circle for 1927-8.

^{3.} E.C. VII. Sk. 227, p. 133.

^{4.} E.C. II. No. 93, p 159, (1st ed.); V. 133, p. 88.

^{5.} E. C. II. No. 254, p. 105.

^{6.} Rice, Mys. & Coorg., p. 99. This precludes our identifying

The similarity between the tradition of Carukirti Pandita Deva in Mudubidre and the story recorded in the above epigraph seems to suggest that it was in the twelfth century A.D. that Jainism made some headway in Tuluva.1 But we have already described how the Santaras had made sporadic attacks on the Tuluva capital Udavāvara in the middle of the ninth century A.D. In the wake of these Santaras, who were essentially Jaina during the early period of their political career, Jainism must have come to Tuluva. The earliest Jaina settlement seems to have been Varanga and its neighbourhood. It is only in Saka 1083 (A.D. 1161-2), however, that we meet with a grant to a Jaina temple by a prince called a Kumāra Rāya. This illegible record in Old Kannada was found in Kervāśe, twenty six miles south-east of Udipi.2

Who this Kūmāra Rāya was cannot be made out. But of the patronage extended to Jainism by this prince there can be no doubt. The fact that the inscription was found in Kervāśe suggests that that place had become a centre of Jainism in the middle of the twelfth century

the Ballāļa Rāya of the Mūdubidre tradition with the Ballāļa Rāya who is associated with Cārukīrti Paṇḍita, the spiritual teacher of the Sāntāra ruler of Tuļuva-Lokanātharasa. See supra Ch. III. Section viii. B. A. S.

^{1.} This agrees with the opinion expressed in As. Res. XVII. p. 282; Viṣṇu Purāṇa, II. p. 104, n. that it was in the eleventh or twelfth century A.D. that Jainism was introduced into Tuluva. But it is incorrect to say that because it was powerful in Gujarat, it spread to Tuluva. B. A. S.

^{· 2.} Sewell, List. I. p. 232.

It was only in the first quarter of the thirteenth century A.D. that we meet with the inscriptions of the Ālupa kings who had extended their patronage to lainism. Thus the defaced stone epigraph found in the Gauri temple at Prantya in Mudubidre, dated A.D. 1215, of the reign of Kulasekhara Alupendradeva I, as already narrated above, contains the incomplete sentence:-Bidireva Pārsvadevaru barevisi. The details of the grant to the goddess Gauri as well as to Pārśvanātha Nevertheless this record proves that are effaced.1 under Kulasekhara Ālupendradeva I Jainism already received royal patronage in Mūdubidre. We prove this from the stone inscription found in the Nemīśvarā basti at Varanga, of the times of the same Alupa ruler, which gives the names of the Jaina gurus Maladhārideva, Mādhavacandra and Prabhācandra.2

Before we pass on to the next Ālupa king who likewise proved to be a patron of Jainism, we may refer to the stone inscription found at Nallūru. It is dated Śaka 1218 (A.D.1296), and it merely records a grant (of land) by a private person to the Jaina basti at Nallūru. The support which the dynasty founded by Lokanātharasa in the Kārkaļa tāluka, gave to the cause of Jainism may be recalled here.

In the stone inscription found in the Ammanavaru basti at Mūdubidre of the reign of the Ālupa king

^{1. 51} of 1901, op. cit.

^{2. 526} of 1928-29, op. cit.

^{3.} Sewell, List. I. p. 232.

Kulaśekhara Ālupendradeva III, dated A.D. 1384, we have further proof of the leaning of the Ālupa ruler towards Jainism. As we have already narrated, the king is described to be seated on the diamond throne (ratna simhāsana), obviously in the Pārśvanātha basti itself, of Mūdubidre (Kulaśekhara-Ālupendra devaru Bidireya... [Pārśvanātha ba] sadiyoļu ratna-simhāsanaārūḍhar...). The defaced inscription clearly mentions, however, a gift to the Pārśvanāthadeva (Bidireya Pārśvanātha dēvarige nive(dya)kk2).

It was only when Jainism had thus secured a firm footing in Nallūru, Kervāśe, Varanga, and Muḍubidre that it travelled towards Bārakūru. A stone inscription discovered in the Somanāthēśvara temple at Maṇigārakēri in Bārakūru, registers the following:—S'rīmatu Kalōrgaṇa-agragaṇyarum-appa śrī-Kīrtī Bhaṭṭārakaru nisi-(a)dhiyanu Maṇigāra-kēriya S'rāvakaru...māḍida dharma śilā-śāsanam. Here is Śrīmat Kīrti Bhaṭṭāraka, who is described as the foremost of the Kālōrgaṇa, mentioned along with the Śrāvakas, a particular class of Jainas, of the street called Maṇigārakērī in Bārakūru, making a monumental structure of remains, and the gift of a grant of merit.

The date of the above record is given thus:—S'aka varṣa 1314 neya Prajāpati samvatsarada Caitra S'uddha 4 Mangaļa vāra which corresponds to A.D. 1391, March the 10th Friday, the week day not corresponding.²

^{1. 53} A of 1001, op. cit.

^{2. 168} D of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 370, p. 225; Swamikannu, Ind. Eph. V, p. 384. On a nisaddhi or monument, read E. C. VII.

The Koraga record dated Saka 1331 (A.D. 1408) registering the gift of land by the Sāntāra king Vīra Bhairava and his son Pāṇḍya Bhūpāla ruling from the capital Kervāśe, at the instance of Vasantakīrti Rāvuļa of the Balātkāragaṇa, for offerings to the image of Parśvanātha and for feeding rṣis in the basti at Bārakūru built by the king, has already been commented upon while delineating the relations between the Ālupas and the Sāntaras.

We may be permitted here to allude to a stone inscription in the Jaina basti at Bārakūru, registering grants of land to the services of Ādi Parameśvara in Bārakūru, by Cārukīrti Pāṇḍita Deva. It is dated Saka 1421 (A.D. 1499-1500).²

5. VAIŅAVISM

Both Jainism and Saivism received a set-back in the thirteenth century A.D. due to the achievements of

Hl. 79, p. 174. Mr. A. N. Upadhye traces the origin of the word to the root sad (to sit), with ni, conveying the idea of a seat. It indicates a monumental structure on the spot within the cremation ground where an Arhat was cremated. Annals of the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, XIV. P. III, pp. 264-266. A Śrīkīrti Bhatṭāraka is mentioned among the Jaina teachers who are represented on the bottom rows of the panel in the Dharmādhikāri basti at Kārkaļa. They are given in the following order:—(1) Kumudacandra Bhatṭaraka; (2) Hemacandra Bhatṭāraka; (3) Śrī Cārukīrti Paṇḍita Deva; (4) Śrutamuni; (5) Dharmabhūṣaṇa Bhatṭāraka; (6) Pūjyapādasvāmi; (7) Vimala Sūri Bhaṭṭāraka; (8) Śrī Kīrti Bhaṭṭāraka; (9) Siddhānta Deva; (10) Cārukīrti Paṇḍita Deva; (11) Mahākirti Deva Rāvuļa; and (12) Narendra Kīrti Deva. Ep. Rep. of the S. Circle for 1921, p. 8.

^{1. 530} of 1928. op. cit.

^{2. 168} C of 1901; S. I. I. VII. No. 369, p. 225.

the greatest son of Tuluva Ānandatīrtha, better known by his name Madhvācārya. We shall give only a few details of the life of this celebrated champion of Dvaitism; and ascertain with the aid of both traditional and epigraphical evidence the date of his birth.

The main source of information for the life and achievements of the great Madhvācārya is the Madhva vijaya.¹ He was born at Pājakakṣetra, in the village of Beḷḷe, about six miles south-east of Uḍipi². His father who is known in history as Madhyagehabhaṭṭa (which is a Sanskritized form of the Tuḷu Naḍvantilāya, Kannada Naḍumane-bhaṭṭa, or the Brahman of the middle house)³ and whose first name is lost, hailed

- 1. For a detailed account of his life, read C. M. Padmanabha Acarya, Śrīmat Madhva Vijaya Kathāmṛtam (Cennapuri, i.e., Madras 1908); G. Venkoba Rao, I. A. XLIII. p. 233 seq.; Pāvañje Guru Rao, Madhva Vijaya (with Subodhini tikā in Kannada) Udipi.
- 2. Here is still shown a bower where the great teacher was born. See also Sturrock, S. C. Manual, I, p. 265 n. (4). It is surprising that such an erroneous statement like the following should be made by a modern writer: "Udipa-In South Canara in the Karwar district." Nundolal Dey, Dictionary of Ancient and Mediaeval India, p. 209 (2nd ed. Calcutta, 1927). No such place like Udipa exists; the name is either Udipi (Udupi) or Odipu (in Tulu). B. A. S.
- 3. The name Nadvantillāya may be traced to the fact that it was the mid-day halting place of Madhvācarya who is reputed to have sometimes performed the daily pūjas in the following order: at dawn in the Kṛṣṇa temple at Udipi, at mid-day in Nadvantādi, and in the evening at Subrahmaṇya. Cf. Srinivasācārya, Udipi-Kṣetra-mahimā, pp. 19-20. (Odipi, 1923, 2nd ed.). It is possible that Nadvantādi, about fifty-miles South—South-East of Udipi, may have been the place of orign of Madhvācārya's ancestors. Vādirāja, one of the greatest of the Udipi Svāmis, describes the holy place of Nadvantādi in his Tirthaprabandha. Nadvantīllāya appears as one of the names of the agminotra-janas described in detail in Appendix. B. A. S.

from the ancient village of Sivaļļi. The family to which Madhyagehabhaṭṭa belonged is called Mūḍillā. Madhyagehabhaṭṭa's wife was called Vedavatī. To them after a twelve years' penance at the Ananteśvara temple in Uḍipi was born a son who was considered to be an avatāra of Vāyu. This child was christened Vāsudeva. The wonderful lad performed great deeds. Once a creditor to whom his father owed some money, sat stubbornly on the doorsteps of Madhyagehabhaṭṭa's house, and refused to depart till his dues were paid. Vāsudeva went inside and returned with some tamarind seeds which, on being given to the Vaisya creditor, were turned into pieces of gold.

Vāsudeva received his initiation (upanayanam) when he was only eleven, and his education at Rajatapītha (Uḍipi). Here in the Ananteśvara temple stayed his guru, the learned Acyutaprekṣa Ācārya, also called Puruśottamatīrtha. Vāsudeva had determined to renounce the pleasures of the world, and, therefore, turned a deaf ear to the entreaties of his parents who wanted him to be a householder. All the concession which Vāsudeva would show to his parents was to remain at home till the birth of another son to them.

^{1.} In the Anumadhvacaritam the following is stated: Jāto-madhyāḥnna velāyām Buddhavāre Marut-tanuḥ | bhūsurendraḥ upanītaḥ yaḥ tata ekādaśa-abdake || saumye jagrāha Bhagavān turīya āśramam uttamam | tataḥ samāse-daṣake divasānām gateparān || Guru Rao, Anumadhvacaritam, vv. 5-6, p. 7. (Udīpi, 1924). This would mean that young Vāsudeva became a samnyāsin only ten days after his upanayanam. B. A. S.

A. K. 27

This second son became later on the well known Vișnutīrtha of Subrahmanya.

Returning to Acyutaprekṣa, Vāsudeva assumed the name of Pūrṇaprajña (on Viļambi Samvatsara Āśāḍha Kṛṣṇa caturthī), when he was only sixteen years of age. Although very eager to go to Kāśī, yet as his guru was not inclined to part with him, Pūrṇaprajña gave up the idea of going to northern India. The fame of this young samnyāsin spread far and wide; and many disputants came to Rajatapīṭha to challenge him. Among them was a learned man called Vāsudeva, who was easily defeated. This was Pūrṇaprajña's first victory.

Acyutaprekṣa was a follower of the Advaita philosophy. Once he began to read a work called Iṣṭhasiddhi to Pūrṇaprajña. Before his guru had finished reading the first śloka, Pūrṇaprajña had found out thirty-two mistakes in it! Acyutaprekṣa soon realized that his disciple was great. Pūrṇaprajña then explained all the errors in the work, and received from his guru the title of Ānandatīrtha.

Among those defeated in the religious discussions were two persons called Vādisimha and Buddhisāgara. The latter was a Buddhist. Ānandatīrtha's greatest desire now was to demolish Sankarācārya's Advaita philosophy. To achieve this end he studied Sankarācārya's S'āririkabhāṣya and Bādarayaṇa's Brahmamīmāmsasūtra. On the former he gave discourses to which Madhyagehabhaṭṭa also attended. Ānandatīrtha was

requested to write a new commentary on the old Sūtras which he agreed to do.

Now he undertook a south Indian tour along with his guru Acyutaprekṣa. He first visited a place called Viṣṇumangala, about three miles from Kāsaragōḍu in the South Kanara district. (About one mile from Viṣṇumangala lay Kumāramangala where the well known Kāvu maṭha of Trivikramācārya exists.)¹ Viṣṇumangala lay within the jurisdiction of the Prince Jayasimhabhūpa of Kumbļa. Here in the Viṣṇumangala temple Ānandatīrtha lived for some time. It is said that on one occasion he ate two-hundred kadali plantains presented to him as dessert!

Travelling onwards Ānandatīrtha crossed the river Payasvānī or Candragiri which marks the boundary between Tuļuva and Keraļa. On the banks of this river he celebrated the Durgā pūjā. Thence he managed to reach Anantaśayana (Travancore) where he defeated Vidyāśankara, a learned Śaivite teacher of Kudyapustū-

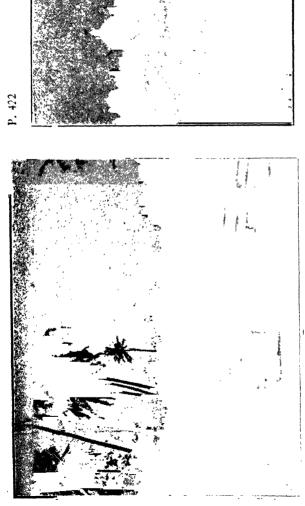
^{1.} Trivikramapandita belonged to the Taulava-vanisa, and his family name was Pijetāya. Srinivasacarya, Udipi-kṣetra-mahimā, p. 23. As regards the ruler of Kumāramangala, we may note the following in a stone inscription found in a field in Kilpādi, Mangalore tāluka. The epigraph is in characters which have been assigned to the twelfth century A.D. It records a gift of land, and mentions Devarasa of Kumāramangala and is dated only in the cyclic year Siddhārtin, (Vr) sabha, 15 (Saturday). The date corresponds to Saka 1181, and works out correctly to (A.D. 1259) May the 10th Saturday. (343 of 1930-1931; Swamikannu, Ind. Eph. IV, p. 120). Devarasa, the chief of Kumāramangala, therefore, was a contemporary of Madhvācārya. B. A. S.

rāya (or the Little New Town)¹. From Anantaśayana Ānandatīrtha went to Kanyākumārī and Rāmeśvaram where Vidyāśankara was again defeated. Ānandatīrtha's fame now reached all quarters. Somewhere while travelling from Rāmeśvaram to Śrīrangam, he gave to his disciples the famous discourse on the first word viśva of the Viṣṇusahasranāma. Then he returned from Śrīrangam to Tuluva passing through a place called Muṣṭakṣetra, which we are unable to identify, but where he met the disputants of Kerala whom he vanquished. Then reaching the Payasvānī river he travelled onwards till he came to the famous Dandatīrtha, a holy place of his own making. All along the southern tour, Ānandatīrtha was accompanied by his guru Acyutaprekṣa Ācārya.²

Ānandatīrtha now desired to go to the north. He had to get the permisson of his guru. But knowing that this would cause grief to Acyutaprekṣa, Ānandatīrtha wrote the first of his great works called Gītā-bhāṣya which he dedicated to his guru. He ultimately secured permission from his guru to go to Badarikāśrama. He went straight to the north, and reached a place called Nārāyaṇatīrtha

2. The Anumadhvacaritam gives the following explanation of the name Madhva:—Madhva-nāmā jigāya ayam vādinah vāda kausalī. Guru Rao, Anumadhvacaritam, v. 7, p. 7. These victories, therefore, won for Anandatīrtha the name Madhva. B. A. S.

^{1.} The word means kudya (little) + pusat [hosat] (new) + $\bar{u}r$ (town) + $\bar{a}ye$ (he) in Tulu. Was there a town of such a name in Tuluva? Madhvācārya's meeting with Vidyāśankara (based on Madhva-vijaya, V. 38) has now been declared to be fiction. Read Journal of the Annamalai University, III. No. 1, pp. 99-105.



Elephant Procession at Udipi hoto by V. G. S.] [Copyright

[Copyright

Daņda-tīrtha where Madhvācārya spent his boyhood

Photo by B. A. S.]

from where he was led, as the story goes, by Bādarāyaṇa to Badarikāśrama. In vain did Ānandatīrtha's disciple Satyatīrtha try to follow his guru. It was at the instance of the Rṣi Bādarāyaṇa that Ānandatīrtha wrote the commentary on the Brahmasūtras.

He returned to the south along the banks of the Godāvarī, where he overcame many disputants. Among these were two who became his disciples-Sobhanabhatṭa and Sama(Sāma) Sāstri. These afterwards came to be known as Padmanābhatīrtha and Naraharitīrtha respectively. Naraharitīrtha was directed by Ānandatīrtha to go to the capital of the Gajapati king and to become the prime-minister of that ruler. And he was by some means or other to get possession of the two original images of Rāma and Sītā. Naraharitīrtha accordingly succeeded in becoming the prime-minister of the Gajapati ruler who was then a boy, and managed to secure the two images.

Ānandatīrtha then returned to Rajatapītha. To his guru Acyutaprekṣa, he gave a copy of the commentary on the Gītā. It was his custom to do penance on the seashore. Once he saw a ship in distress. With the aid of his spiritual powers, Ānandatīrtha made the ship reach safely the shore. (This was near Oḍabhānḍeśvara at Malpe). The captain of the ship as a token of his gratefulness,¹ gave Ānandatīrtha a block of clay called gopicandana. On breaking open the clay block,

^{1.} The name of the captain is given in some accounts as Mainda (or Maina). Srinivasacarya, Udipi-kşetra-mahimā, p. 14.

they discovered two lovely images of Kṛṣṇa and Balarāma. The former Ānandatīrtha installed at Rajatapīṭha where he appointed eight of his disciples to look after it in regular succession, while the latter image of Balarāma can still be seen at Oḍabhāṇḍeśvara. (Thus arose the singular institution of the aṣṭha maṭhas of Uḍipi, the Svamis of which carry on the administration of the Kṛṣṇa and the other maṭhas with singular skill and piety).

After living for some time at Udipi Anandatīrtha thought of going a second time to Badarikāśrama. disciples Satyatīrtha and Upendratīrtha accompanied him in his second northern tour. At this time the ruler of Devagiri was Mahādeva, also called Iśvara Deva in some accounts, of the Yadava family. Isvara Deva was a tyrant. How he tormented the samnyāsins of Udipi will be narrated later on in this treatise. But Tsvara Deva was compelled to desist from giving much trouble to Anandatirtha. Reaching the Bhagirathi (the Ganges), Anandatirtha surprised the Muhammadan ruler of that region by crossing the river without a boat and talking to the Sultan in his own language. Anandatirtha won the admiration of the Sultan and proceeded northwards.

On the way robbers waylaid him and his disciples. But he was more than a match for the robbers. In another place he transformed the meek Upendratīrtha into a man of superstrength and pitched him against marauders who begged pardon of Anandatīrtha. In yet

another place he destroyed a tiger which sprang suddenly on Satyatīrtha, who was carrying the pūjā box on his shoulders. In due course Ānandatīrtha reached Badarikāśrama where Bādarāyaṇa gave him eight śālagrāmas which later on the Ācārya installed at Uḍipi, Subrahmaṇya, Madhyatāļe, and in other maṭhas.¹ Ānandatīrtha was told by Bādarāyaṇa to write a commentary on the Mahābhārata. He returned to Hastināvatī and Kurukṣetra where at the former place he spent the cāturmāsa. He then travelled to Kāśi where he defeated a teacher called Indrapuri (?), a champion of Advaitism. This victory secured for Anandatīrtha the title of yati-śikhāmaṇi. It was while in this region that the Ācārya showed the great physical strength he possessed by defeating in a wrestling match fifty persons.

While returning to Udipi he passed through Goa and an unidentified place called Işupattakşetra. At

^{1.} It is stated in the Mys. Arch. Rep. for 1917, p. 62 that five of these śālagrāmas, called also the Vyāsa stones, are said to be in the Uttarādi matha of the Mysore State, three in other Madhva mathas, "though there is some difference of opinion as to which mathas are in possession of these precious relics. From the references given above, it becomes apparent that the Rāghavendrasvāmi matha (of Nañjanagūdu) has all along been in possession of these relics." The verse from the Madhva-vijaya relating to the śālagrāmas secured by the Ācārya, is also given on this page. But the assertion that the Uttaradi matha and the Rāghavendrasvāmi matha have got the majority of the precious stones runs against the tradition current at Udipi that these śālagrāmas, as narrated above, were deposited in the mathas in Tuluva itself. I had the privilege of seeing one of these beautiful śālagrāmas in the matha at Subrahmanya on May the 4th 1936 at the hands of His Holiness Viśvajñatīrtha Svāmi. It was exquisitely shining, dark black in colour, almost as large as an egg, and with a slender mark upon it which the people likened to the sacred thread. B. A. S.

Goa he surprised the people of the grāma of Pusava by his extraordinary musical skill. The Acarya then reached Tuluva where at Kaudipādi (Kodipādi) he defeated another Advaita teacher named Padmatīrtha, the disciple of Vidyāśankara whom Anandatīrtha had already vanquished. Padmatīrtha's attempts to steal the work called Madhva-siddhanta were frustrated by the Ācārva. From Kaudipādi the Ācārya journeyed to Kabenādu in Tuluva where he stayed for a few days in the Madanādipati temple. Thence he went to the Visnumangala temple in the territory of the Kumbla Raja Jayasimhabhūpa, who now became his disciple. This prince descended from his chariot and walked in the company of the Acarva, who was now honoured by the representatives of the twenty-eight villages of Kumbla. The learned Trivikramapandita of the Angirasa gotra desired to enter into a discussion with the Ācārva. The debate was held for fifteen days in the Amaralaya Kūdilu grāma, at the end of which Trivikramapandita acknowledged himself defeated, and became a disciple of the Ācārya. According to the advice of his guru, Trivikramapandita wrote a commentary called Tattvapradīpikā.

Meanwhile Ānandatīrtha's parents had died. And his brother renouncing the duties of a householder, became Ānandatīrtha's disciple. The Ācārya then returned to Rajatapītha.

· The great teacher is said to have performed certain remarkable deeds which reveal his wonderful

physical strength. His extraordinary abilities had created some enemies. They had heard of the Acarya teaching his disciples at the dead of night without a lamp but merely with the lustre issuing from the nail of his toe. A certain man called Kodanjadi Gantavala and his brother, both renowned for their great physical strength, challenged the Ācārva to lift the flag-staff of the temple of the god Kantadeva (of Kantavara?). But the two brothers were unable to stir even the little finger of the Acarya! At a place called Ambātīrtha the great Ācārya performed a marvellous deed which we shall describe in detail presently. the confluence of the two rivers Kumāradārī and Netrāvatī (probably at Uppinangadi), a great famine raged. This region belonged to the chieftain called Saridanta. The Ācārya came to know of the distress suffered by the people, and he went to their succour at once. At the houses of the poor, the Ācārya would make a handful of rice suffice for hundreds of people; while at those of the rich, for thousands. The chieftain greatly honoured the Ācārya, and became one of his followers. While in this region at a place called Dhanvantarikṣetra, the Ācārya wrote one of his works called Krsnāmrtamahārnava.

The great Madhvācārya now foresaw that his end was drawing near. And it is believed at Udipi that he spent four months at Kanvatīrtha in Tuluva. Just

^{1.} Thus in the Anumadhvacaritam: -kṛtvā-ca-caturah māsān-uṣitvā-Kaṇvatīrthake. Guru Rao, Anumadhvacaritam, p. 8. Kaṇvatīrtha lies about forty-four miles south of Udipi.

before the Ācārya's death, Naraharitīrtha got him the two precious images of Rāma and Sītā from Gañjām. For three months and sixteen days the Ācārya kept the images in his own custody and worshipped them. The Ācārya then transmitted the charge of the images to the care of his disciple Padmanābhatīrtha. And having lived for seventy-nine years (ekonāsiti-varṣāṇi nītvā mānuṣa dṛṣṭigaḥ), in the Piṇgaļa Saṃvatsara Māgha Suddha Navami, the great Madhvācārya went to Badarī.¹

Such is briefly the life of the most celebrated son of Tuluva. Incredible as some of his actions may seem, there is reason to believe that this description was not the result of fanciful exaggeration on the part of the writer of the Madhva-vijaya, by name Nārāyaṇa, son of Trivikrama. We have just referred to the prodigious deeds of strength done by the great Ācārya at a place called Ambātīrtha. The following is related about the incident in the Madhva-vijaya:—

tīrthārtham pṛthutara-vapra pāti-vārām l dhārāṇām raya-sahana-kṣamām Mahekṣaḥ ll ānītām daśa-śata-pumbhir atyaśaktyā l prekṣyoce vipula-śilām kvacit sa muktām ll lōkānām upakṛtaye kutaś-śileyam l

- 1. Madhva-vijaya. A palm leaf version of this work is in my possession. I secured it through the kind aid of my friend Vidvān Pandit Venkatadāsācārya of Udipi. Cf. Guru Rao, Anumadhvacaritam, v. 10, p. 8. Some of the details given above may be compared with the abstract of the same given by Venkoba Rao, I. A. XLIII. pp. 236-237, 264 n. (25); Padmanābhācārya, op. cit.
- 2. Cf. Bhandarkar, Vaisnavism, Saivism and Minor Religious Systems, p. 81. (Poona, 1928).

ninye no iti janatā jagāda tatra II
netāro yati-vara mānavā nahīmām I
Bhīmāś-ced iha yatate nayen na veti II
ninye tām girim iva vānarī-kṛtātmā I
līlāvat-kara-kamalena so'malena II
tatrāpi nyadhita tayāsya sūcayate 'lam I
tat Tungām nanu nikaṣādhunāpi karma III

Mahekṣa(Madhvācārya) saw a big rock, capable of supporting the fall of water from a height, which had been brought by a thousand men for some tīrtha and abandoned through utter inability. "Why was the rock not conveyed (to its destination) for the good of the people?", he enquired. The crowd at the place replied that there were not men able to carry it there, and that even if Bhīma were to try, it was doubtful whether he could do it. Whereupon Mahekṣa bore up the rock easily with one hand, as in the form of Hanumān he had borne up the mountain (Gandhamādana), and placed it at the destined spot. And this rock in the Tungā even now bears witness to his deed.

In silent testimony to the marvellous achievement of Madhvācārya is engraved on that big boulder called Bhīmanakallu, at the Ambātīrtha in Māvinakere, Mūdgere tāluka, the following epigraph:—

S'rī-Madhvācāryyaiḥ eka-hastena-ānīya sthāpita-šilā (The rock brought [here] and set up with one hand by Madhvācārya).²

^{1.} Cf. Rice, E. C. VI. Intr. p. 27.

^{2.} Ibid, Mg. 89, pp. 75, 293.

Rice has assigned this inscription to about A.D. 1240. But on the strength of the evidence cited below, we may assign this event to circa A.D. 1280.

This brings us to the question of the date of the birth of the great Madhvācārya. The most important considerations in the determination of his date are the tradition that is still preserved at the eight mathas of his disciples in Udipi, the internal evidence supplied both by the Madhva-vijaya and the Anumadhvacaritam, and the contemporaneity of a ruler and of one of his own disciples mentioned in the Madhva-vijaya.

We may dispense with the date Saka 1117-18 as the date of the birth of Madhvācārya. Likewise the date A.D. 1199 given by Sturrock, obviously on the basis of a statement made in one of the Ācārya's own works called the Bhāratatātparyanirṇaya, and the assertion that Kallyāṇapura was the birthplace of the great Vaiṣṇava teacher.²

An equally futile attempt was made by Sir R. G. Bhandarkar, who not only repeated the error of the

^{1.} This is Mr. Venkoba Rao's view. I. A. XLIII. p. 265.

^{2.} Sturrock, S. C. Manual, I. p. 147. The compiler of this Manual ascribes Christian origin to the teachings of Madhvācārya. "The moral code of Madhvācārya is high one, and his teaching is held by some-not ordinary Hindus of course-to have been affected by the existence of the community of Christians at Kallianpur mentioned by Cosmos Indico Pleustes in the seventh century." Ibid, p. 147. It is wrong to confound the Kalian mentioned by Cosmos Indico Pleustes with Kallyāṇapur of Tuļuva, and unhistorical to say that there were Christians in any part of Tuļuva in the thirteenth century A.D. I do not know whether this and equally erroneous statements with which the S. C. Manual abounds have been rectified in the forthcoming revised edition of the Madras District Gazetteers. B. A. S.

compiler of the S. C. Manual that Kallyanapura was the birthplace of the great Ācārya, but accepted the wrong view that it was the same as Rajatapītha!1 While rejecting the Saka year 1040 as the date of Madhavacārya's birth, Bhandarkar accepted the date inserted in the Bharatatatparynirnaya "to be the correct date of his birth". We shall presently refer to this source of information. Bhandarkar's arguments seem to be wholly conjectural and forced. "It (Kali 4300) corresponds to Saka 1121, which, bearing in mind the fact that some use the current year of an era and some in the past, we must regard as equivalent to Saka 1119. the date given in the lists for Anandatirtha's death. But instead of taking it as the date of his death, we shall have to regard it as the date of his birth. He lived for 79 years according to the current account. so that his death must be placed in Saka 1198. dates may, therefore, be taken as settled."2

^{1-2.} R. G. Bhandarkar, Vaisnvism, Saivism and Minor Religious Systems, p. 82, and ibid, n. (1). The reference is given to the Imperial Gazetteer, XIV. p. 314, which merely follows the S. C. Manual. To support his conjectures, Bhandarkar tells ua that "This agrees with the tradition existing in the Matha at Phalamāru, near Mulki in South Canara, to the effect that Anandatīrtha was born in Saka 1119 and died in Saka 1199. E. I. VI. p. 263, n." Vaisnavism, Saivism, etc., p. 83, n. (4). It is not what the tradition in the Phalamāru matha in Mūlki that matters but what the eight mathas at Udipi have got say on the question. And even here care should be exercised as to the source we select. Thus even information supposed to emanate from one of the mathas itself may have to be rejected. Mr. B. Rama Rao asserts that Saka 1121 Kāļāyuktāksi samavatsara Māgha Su. 7th was the date of the birth of Madhvācārya. He bases his assertion on the strength of a Kaifiyut called the Adhamāru matha Kaifiyut which gives us this

These "settled" dates of Sir R. G. Bhandarkar have to be rejected on historical grounds; and we have to examine the validity of the arguments put forward by other scholars who have arrived at the correct date of the birth of Madhvācārya. Of these only two deserve mention—Mr. C. M. Padmanābha Ācārya and the late Mr. Kṛṣṇa Śāstri. Mr. Padmanābha Ācārya arrived at Śaka 1160 as the date of the birth of the great Ācārya. He utilized the fact of the contemporaneity of Madhvācārya with Naraharitīrtha, of Madhvācārya's disciple Adhokṣajatīrtha with Vidyāraṇya Svāmi of Śringeri, and of the Devagiri ruler Īśvara Deva, whom he identified with Mahādeva, with Madhvācārya himself.¹

The late Mr. Kṛṣṇa Śāstri argued in this manner:— To get at the time of Ānandtīrtha, the total period of the sthānādhipatya of the intervening teachers Padmanābhatirtha, Naraharitīrtha, and Madhvatīrtha, viz., thirty-three years, will have to be deducted, say, from

information. Prācīna Kārnāṭaka, I. P. I. pp. 53-57. But this Kaifiyut was written by a man called Kṛṣṇa Bhaṭṭa of the Adhamāru maṭha in the cyclic year Kṣaya, Jeṣṭha, Śuddha 5, for the Kumpanī Sirkar, i. e., the English East India Company. Mr. Rama Rao does not tell us from where he secured this Kaifiyut. But I am sure that it was written for Col. Colin Mackenzie, and that it may be found in the Mackenzie Collection, as preserved at the India Office Library. Goldstücker too asserted that A.D. 1199 was the date Madhvācārya's birth. Literary Remains, I. p. 248. This error has been repeated by Mr. Nundolal Dey. Geog. Dicty. p. 209 (2nd ed.). See also N. S. Rajapurohit, Prācīna Karnāṭaka, II. No. 1, pp. 1, seq.

^{1.} Padmanabha Acarya, Shrimat Madhva Vijaya Kathamritam, Intr. p. 1 seq. (Madras, 1909).

A.D. 1362, and this brings us to A.D. 1329. Now, the nearest year A.D. which corresponds to Pingala, the traditional date of the death of Anandatirtha, was A.D. 1317. Anandtirtha is supposed to have lived for seventy-nine years, and consequently the date of his birth, the cyclic year Vilambi, would correspond to A.D. 1238. The statement in the Madhva-vijaya confirms this date.¹

Evidence from another work may be cited to substantiate the conclusion arrived at both by Mr. Padmanābha Ācārya and Mr. Kṛṣṇa Śāstri. This is called Anumadhvacaritam written by one of the direct disciples of Madhvācārya by name Hṛṣīkeśatīrtha of the Phalamāru matha at Udipi. The following is written in the Annumadhvacaritam:—

triśatābdottaracatuḥ-sahasrābdebhya uttare ekona-catvā-

^{1.} E. I. VI. p. 263. Mr. Sastri rightly considered the verse in the Bhāratatāt paryanir naya, written by Madhvācārya himself, to be an interpolation. For in this work Madhvācārya is said to have been born in Kali 4300 (A.D. 1198). The verse in question is the following: catus-sahasre tri-satottare gate samvatsaranam-tu Kalau prthivyam \ iātah bunarvibratanussa Bhimah-daitvaih-nigūdam Haritattvam-āha Bhāratatātparyanirnaya, Adhvāva 32, v. 131. According to this verse, as Sastri said, there is a difference of eighty years between it and the date found in the lists. Even this date given in the Bharatatatparyanirnaya cannot be reconciled with the dates of the inscriptions of Anandatirtha's disciple Naraharitirtha. Hence it is an interpolation. E. I. VI. p. 263. Mr. Krsnamurti Sarma rightly maintains that A.D. 1238 is the date of Madhvācārya's birth. Journal of the Annamalai University, III. Oct. No. 2, 1934, pp. 245-255; ibid, V. No. 1, pp. 96-118. S. Hanumanta Rao also places Madhvācārya in the thirteenth century A.D. Madras University Journal, I. No. 1 and II No. 1. But these are inaccessible to me. See I. H. Q., IX, p. 969. B. A. S.

rimsābde Viļambi-parivatsare Āsvija-S'ukla-Dasamī-divase bhuvi-pāvane Pājakākhye suci-kṣetre durgayā-ca abhivīkṣite cā-taḥ-madhyāḥnna-vēlāyām Buddhavāre Maruttānuh 1

The date of Madhvācārya's death is given thus in the same work:—

ekonāsīti varsāni-nītvā mānusu-drstigah

Pingalābde Māgha-S'uddha navamvyām Badarīm yayau.

From the above the following is clear—that in Kali 4339 Viļambi Samvatsara, Āśvija Śuddha Dāsami Wednesday afternoon, Madhvācārya was born at Pājakakṣetra. This agrees with A.D. 1238 September the 20th Monday, the week day however not corresponding.

If we add seventy-nine years to A.D. 1239, we reach A.D. 1317 the cyclic year of which was Pingala. And the date of the death of Madhvācārya works out correctly to Kali 4418 Pingala Samvatsara Māgh Suddha Navami = A.D. 1317 January the 22nd Saturday.²

^{1.} I am indebted to my friend Paṇḍit Venkaṭadāsācārya for this reference to the Anumadhvacaritam, a palm leaf copy of which exists at the Phalamāru maṭha at Udipi. Cf. Guru Rao, Aṇumadhvacaritam, vv. 3-5, p. 7; Srinivasācārya, Udipi-kṣetra-mahimā, p. 13. For the verification of the dates, see Swamikannu, Ind. Eph IV. pp. 79, 236. In some versions of the Anumadhvacaritam the following reading is said to have been given ekona-vimiatitame—which corresponds to Kali 4318 Vilambi. This is inadmissible, because the cyclic year for Kali 4318 was Iśvara, and for Kali 4319, Bahudhānya. Swamikannu, ibid, IV. pp. 36-37. Mr. Guru Rao too rightly says that the latter reading is inadmissible, ibid, p. 7. The traditon current at Udipi is that the great Ācārya lived for 79 years, 6 months, and 20 days. B. A. S.

^{2.} On my writing to Pandit Venkatadāsācarya about the incompatibility of the weekday of the Ācārya's birth, he informs me in

We have already mentioned some of the most prominent disciples of Madhvācārya. He vested the management of the eight mathas at Udipi in the charge of the following disciples:—

Matha Name Visnutīrtha (the Ācārva's Sode matha own brother) Ianārdhanatīrtha Kṛṣṇāpura matha Rāmatīrtha Kānūru matha Narasimhatirtha Adhamāru matha Upendratīrtha Puttige matha Śirūru matha Vāmanatīrtha Phalamāru matha Hrsikeśatirtha Adhoksajatīrtha Pējāvara matha1

We may now try to fix chronologically the great Ācārya's tours in southern and northern India. The

his letter dated 21-10-1935 that he had the horoscope of the Ācārya's birth recast according to the *Anumadhvacaritam*; and that he finds the weekday corresponds to Monday. Some of the Pandits of the eight mathas inform him that Wednesday may have been put by a clerical error in the *Anumadhvacaritam*. B. A. S.

^{1.} These and other details of the mathas of Udipi have been supplied to me by Pandit Venkatadāsācārya. Sir R. G. Bhandarkar gives a list of the gurus of Udipi. Report on Search for Sanskrit Mss. for 1882-83, p. 17 seq. (Poona, 1928). Since these lists are based on those supplied to him from Poona, Miraj and Belgaum, they are not so trustworthy as the lists preserved in Udipi itself. The above list of gurus agrees with that given by Mr. Pavanje Guru Rao in his Sampradāya-paddhati, p. 4, and by Srinivasacarya, Udipiksetra-mahimā, p. 18. We may note here that of these the Phalamāru and the Adhamāru mathas form the first dvanda, the Kṛṣṇāpura and the Puttige mathas the second dvanda, the Śirūru and the Sōde mathas the third dvanda, and the Kāṇūru and the Pējāvara mathas the fourth dvanda. B. A. S.

Madhva-viiava mentions one southern and two northern tours. While determining the chronology of his tours, we have to bear in mind his contemporaneity with Naraharitīrtha and Īśvara Deva of Devagiri. We may be permitted to repeat one or two facts given above. Madhvācārya was born in A.D. 1238. His upanayanam or the sacred thread ceremony took place when he was eleven, i.e., in A.D. 1249. In his sixteenth year (A.D.1254) he assumed the title of Pūrnaprajña. This is the first important landmark in his chronology. The next is that relating to his southern tour. But before he undertook his southern tour, he was engaged in religious disputations. We may assume that these disputations covered about two years. So he may have started on his southern tour in about A.D. 1256. This journey must necessarily have taken him at least three years. His return to Tuluva, therefore, may be placed in A.D. 1260. Since he was now busy writing a commentary on the $Git\bar{a}$, he may have started on his first northern tour only in A.D. 1266. We may give five years to this northern tour, and assume that, while returning to Tuluva through the Kalinga kingdom, he met Naraharitirtha in A.D. 1270.

We may pause here to examine the validity of our assumptions, by finding out whether Naraharitīrtha's dates agree with the deduction made above. Naraharatīrtha's inscriptions range between A.D. 1264 and A.D. 1294. There is nothing improbable in Madhvācārya's having met Naraharitīrtha in about A.D. 1270.

^{1.} E. I., VI. p. 262.

Madhvācārya returned to Rajatapīṭha in the next year; and we may legitimately place the discovery of the image of Kṛṣṇa in the ship off the coast of Malpe in the three years which intervened between his return to Tuļuva and his second northern tour. That is to say, it may be assigned to about the year A.D. 1273. This period, it may also be remembered, was spent in writing commentaries on the scriptures.

The Madhva-vijaya clearly says that after living for some time in Udipi, Madhvācārya started on his second tour to the north. Therefore, we may allot three years to his stay in Tuluva. The second tour to Badrīkāśrama may be determined with the help of the date of his contemporary called in the Madhva-vijaya Iśvara Deva of Devagiri. No such name is met with in the Seuna or Yādava geneology. But he has been identified with Mahādeva of Devagiri.

We may be allowed to mention a few details concerning this Isvara or Mahādeva of Devagiri as given in the *Madhva-vijaya*, and see in what manner they agree with the details one may glean from the epigraphs. In the epigraphs he is called Mahādeva; and till now it was generally believed that his reign lasted

^{1.} Kṛṣnaswami Aiyar, Madhvācārya, A Historic Sketch, p. 14. This book is unfortunately inaccessible to me. But it has been referred to by Kṛṣṇa Śāstri, E. I. VI. p. 263. The reference is also given to Fleet, Dyn. Kan. Dist. p. 519 (2nd ed.). Padmanābha Ācārya also refers to the same Mahādeva of Devagiri. Madhva-vijaya-kathāmṛtam, op. cit.

from A.D. 1260 till A.D. 1270. But there is reason to believe that Mahadeva ruled till A.D. 1291, although by this time Rāmacandra Deva had successfully wrested a part of the Yadava territory either from Mahādeva himself or from his son Amma.² For an incomplete inscription clearly says the following:śri-jaya-abhyudaya S'aka varsa 1214 svasti Khara samvatsaradali 'srīmanu ('srīmatu) Mahādevaru prthivīrājyam-geyyuttam iddalli. The statement in this record that Mahadeva was ruling the kingdom of the world— Mahādevaru prthivī-rājyam geyyuttam iddalli—proves that he was still king over the Yādava territory. record breaks off after a few words, but the date given in it corresponds to A.D. 1291.3

Some of the above records give interesting details concerning Mahādeva which confirm, on the whole,

^{1.} Fleet, *ibid*, pp. 73-74 (1st ed.); 263 (2nd ed.). See also E. C. XI, Dg. 8, 79, 87, 97, 100, 102, 162, 163, 171, 122, dating from A.D. 1264 till A.D. 1268, pp. 26, 66, 68-70, 81, 83; VII. Sk. 41, Ci. 4, 21, 22 ranging from A.D. 1265 till A.D. 1268, pp. 47, 178, 181, 182.

^{2.} Fleet asserts that Devagiri still continued to be the Seuna capital under Rāmacandra. Dyn. Kan. Dts., p. 74. (1st ed.). But Rice maintains that Rāma Deva transferred his seat to Bettur in the Mysore State, close to Dāvaṇagere in the east. Mys. & Coorg., p. 109. It is true that Rāmacandra's inscriptions appear in A.D. 1282, E. C. VII. Ci. 23, 24, 26, ranging from A.D. 1280 till circa 1290, pp. 182-3. Since Ci. dated A.D. 1282 was engraved in the 14th regnal year of Rāmacandra, we may infer that he began to reign in A.D. 1268. This year falls within the reign of Mahādeva, and therefore, Rice's assumption that Rāmacandra began to rule in the reign of Mahādeva himself seems to be correct. B. A. S.

^{3.} E. C. IX. Cp. 171, p. 346 text; Sewell-Dikshit, The Indian Calendar, Table 1; Swamikannu, Ind. Eph. IV. p. 184.

the account given of this ruler in the Madhva-vijaya. In one record he is called Ugra-saārvabhauma, thus suggesting, as Fleet remarked, that he forcibly usurped the sovereignity.1 This assumption of Fleet is confirmed by an epigraph dated A.D. 1268, which after tracing the Seuna genealogy from king Jaitugi through his son Bhillama, and then through Simhana, and the latter's son Sarangapāni, directly mentions Mahādeva thus—the heroic Mahādeva seized the three worlds (trailokvam akrāmati).2 The same is repeated in another record of the ruler which, after narrating that the emperor Simhana shone in the world, says that "From him the king Mahādeva Rāya overcame the three worlds."3 Mahādeva Rāya's presumption is seen in the birudas given to him in about A.D. 1265—arirāya (king over enemies), rā va-pitāmaha (grandfather of kings).4

Two more birudas of Mahādeva Rāya may be noted before we pass on to the notices of the ruler in the Madhva-vijaya. In two inscriptions dated A.D. 1265 and A.D. 1266 Mahādeva is called pratijāā Parašurāma (in vows a Parašurāma), and bhuja-bala-Bhīma (in the strength of his arms a Bhīma). From these and similar birudas it is clear that Mahādeva Rāya considered himself to be the personification of strength and valour. It is not surprising, therefore, that he should find in Madhyā-

^{1.} Fleet, ibid, p. 74.

^{2.} E. C. VII. Ci. 21, pp. 181, 433.

^{3.} Ibid, Ci. 22, p. 434.

^{4.} Ibid, XI. Dg. 8, op. cit.

^{5.} Ibid, Dg. 162, 172, op. cit. text, pp. 162, 218.

cārya, who, as the Bhīmanakulla epigraph proves, was also a Bhīma in strength, a rival of greater renown.

The Madhva-viiava relates that the Acarya on coming to the territory of Isvara Deva, found the ruler engaged in a scheme of sinking wells evidently by the roadside. Isvara Deva is said to have ordered the Ācārya to dig like any ordinary man; but was confounded when the Acarya replied that he would do the digging if the ruler himself showed him how to do it. What seems clear from the above is that the ruler of Devagiri harassed the Ācārva while passing through his territory. We may not be far wrong in placing this event relating to the ruler of Devagiri between A.D. 1276 and A.D. 1286, when Isvara Deva was ruling over the Yadava territory. If this is allowed, then, the Ācārya's discovery of the six salagrāmas may be placed in A.D. 1285, and his return to Tuluva in A.D. 1290.1

From A.D. 1290 till A.D. 1310 Madhvācārya was actively engaged in touring through Tuļuva; and it is possible that in A.D. 1316-17 that the images of Rāma and Sītā were received by him.

^{1.} The Muhammadan Sultan who was the contemporary of Madhvācārya, cannot be determined with certainty. Perhaps he was either Ghayasu-d Dīn Balban (A.D. 1266), or Muizzu-d Dīn Kaikobād (A.D. 1286). Smith, Oxford History of India, p. 230. (2nd ed.). The late Mr. Venkoba Rao, whose edition of Somanātha's Vyāsayogicaritam has just reached me through the courtesy of MM. Rao Bahadur R. Narasimhācārya, expressed the view that it was Balban "whom Śrī Madhvācārya met and who treated the Ācārya well." Intr. p. XXIII. (Bangalore, 1926). B. A. S.

The following table summarizes our deductions given above:—

Event	Date		
Birth	A.D. 1238 (Sept. the 20th		
	Monday [Wednesday		
Upanayanam	A.D. 1249		
Became Pūrņaprajña	A.D. 1254		
South Indian tour	a.d. 1256-a.d. 1259		
Return to Tuluva	a.d. 1260-a.d. 1265		
I. north Indian tour	A.D. 1266-A.D. 1271		
Meeting with Narahari- tīrtha	а. р. 1270		
Return to Tuluva	A.D. 1271		
Discovery of the image of Krsna	A.D. 1273		
II. north Indian tour (lasting over ten years)	A.D. 1276–1286		
Discovery of the six sālagrāmas	а.р. 1285		
Return to Tuluva	а.р. 1290		
Touring about Tuluva	A.D. 1290-A.D. 1310		
Receives the images of Rama and Sita	A.D. 1317		
Death	A. D. 1317 (January the 22nd Saturday) ¹		

Before we enumerate his works and principles, we may note that in the Alupa records discovered so far no mention whatsoever is made of Madhvācārya.

^{1.} The late Mr. Venkoba Rao arrived at certain conclusions in regard to the Ācārya's tours, which are different to mine. Vyāsayogicaritam, Intr. pp. XXII, seq. B. A. S.

Between A.D. 1238 and A.D. 1317 kings Vibudhavasu, Vīra Pāndyadeva Ālupendradeva I, Nāgadevarasa, and Bankideva Alupendradeva II ruled over the Alupa kingdom. And only two years before the death of Madhvācārya, Soyideva Ālupendradeva had come to the throne. It is permissible to assume that because of the increasing influence of the great Vaisnava preacher, the Saivite centres were confined mostly to Kōṭa, Brahmāvūru, and Nīlāvara in the Udipi tāluka, Kōteśvara and Basarūru in the Kundāpūru tāluka, and Polali and Kadri in the Mangalore taluka. This explains why the Alupa records of this period are found only in these centres. It is only with Sovideva Alupendradeva that the Alupa capital reverts back to Barakuru. And that was just the time when Madhvācārya had returned to Tuluva after his second northern tour. We have seen that Sovideva Alupendradeva was a staunch supporter of the Saivite religion. The absence of the name of Madhvācārva in any of the Ālupa records is to be attributed to the strong Saivite tendency of the Alupa kings, who were not inclined to favour a preacher whose avowed object in life seems to have been nothing but to wage a ceaseless crusade against Saivism till his last days. But if the contemporaneity of king Vibudhavasu with the Madhva-pracanda-muni as given in the Puttige version of the Grāmapaddhati is accepted, then the description of the Madhva sage, which we shall presently give, was no other than that of Madhvācārya himself.

The following thirty-seven works are ascribed to Madhvācārya, according to the tradition current at Udipi:—

Gītā-bhāṣya, Gītā-tātparya, Sūtra-bhāṣya, Aṇu-bhāṣya, (or the two together Bhāṣyāṇubhāṣya), Mahābhārata-tāt parya-nirṇaya, Bhāgavata-tātparya, (Nṛsimha) Nakha-stotra, Yamaka-bhārata, Dvādaša-stotra, Tantra-sāra, Sadā-cāra-smṛti, Yati-prāṇakalpa, (or Sukha-tīrtha-yati-kalpa), Jayanti-nirṇaya, Rg-bhāṣya, Pramāṇa-lakṣaṇa, Kathā-lakṣaṇa, Tatva-sankhyāyana, Tatva-viveka, Māyā-vāda-khaṇḍana, Prapañca-mithyatva-māna-khaṇḍana, Upādhi-khaṇḍana, Tatvadyota, Viṣṇu-tatva-nirṇaya, Aitereya-bhāṣya, Taittireya-bhāṣya, Bṛhadāraṇya-bhāṣya, Isāvasya-bhāṣya, Khāṭaka-bhāṣya, Chandogya-bhāṣya, Atharvaṇa-bhāṣya, Māṇḍūkya-bhāṣya, S'aṭ-praṣna-bhāṣya, Talavakāra-bhāṣya, Aṇu-vyākhyāna, Saṃnyāya-vivṛti, Kṛṣṇāmṛta-mahārṇava, and Karma-nirṇaya.

The above may be compared with the thirty-seven works of Madhvācārya as given in the *Granthamālikā* stotra.

^{1.} Bhandarkar, Report on Search for Sansk. Mss. for 1882-83, pp. 24-25 (Poona, 1928). See alse Guru Rao, Granthamālikāstotra, vv. 3-13, pp. 9-10. (Udipi, 1924). The Anumadhvacaritam relates the following relating to the works of Madhvācārya:—That bestowing the standing image of Kṛṣṇa to Padmanābhatīrtha, he deposited the works at a place called Setutila:—tatah dayā-vārī-nidhigrāme Setutila-āhvaye sva-śāstra-grantham-akarot bhūgatam purnasemuşih. Guru Rao, Anumadhvacaritam, p. 5. Setutila is another name of Kadtala (Lat. 13° 21', Long. 74° 59'), 12 miles from Kārkaļa on the Kārkaļa-Someśvara road. According to some this place is 18 miles east of Kanvatīrtha. Srinivasacarya, Udipi-kṣetra-mahimā, p. 22. B. A. S.

We may now briefly allude to the principles preached by Madhvācārya. This champion of Vaiṣṇavism confuted the doctrine of Māyā or unreality of the world, and maintained the theory of bhakti or love of God which could be practised by all without distinction of caste or creed. Rāmānujācārya had preached his gospel in the eleventh century A.D. But Madhvācārya discarded as much the qualified monism of Rāmānujācārya as he did the pure monism of Sankarācārya. Following the Vaiśesikas, Madhvācārya declared that all knowledge sprang from Paramātman, whatever were the means by which it was produced. And mokṣa could be attained by the direct knowledge of Hari along the eighteen different paths which are possible for all from Brahmadeva to man.¹

The scriptural authorities of this school founded by the Ācārya are besides his own writings, the four Vedas, the Mahābhārata, the original Rāmāyaṇa, and the Pañcarātra. According to Sir R. G. Bhandarkar, since there is no place in Madhvācārya's creed for the Vyuhas, Vāsudeva and others, and since the name by which the Supreme Spirit is spoken of is mostly Viṣṇu, Gopāla Kṛṣṇa and Rādhā being entirely absent from his system, it is possible that he set aside the Pañcarātra or threw it into the background.

^{1.} Bhandarkar, Vaișnavism, Śaivism, etc., pp. 81-86; Krishna Sastri, E. I., VI. p. 261.

^{2.} Goldstücker, Literary Remains, I. pp. 349-250.

^{3.} Bhandarkar, ibid, p. 87. On the Pañcarātra, read Bhattacarya, Jayākbya-Samhitā, Intr. p. 6 seq. (G. O. Series No. LIV).

The sectarian marks used by the followers of Madhvācārya may be first mentioned before we pass on to a description of the great preacher himself as given to us in the *Grāmapaddhati*. The Vaiṣṇava Brahmans of the Madhva school wear today two white perpendicular lines of the clay called gopicandana, joined at the roots of the nose, with a black line in the middle that has a round red mark in the centre. A cross line joins the two lines on the bridge of the nose. In daily life the followers of Madhvācārya wear merely the gopicandana marks and pañca-mudrās or the five marks of śańkha or the conch-shell, cakra or the discus, gadā or the club, padma or the lotus, and Nārāyaṇa. The last one, as will be seen presently, differs from the one given in the *Grāmapaddhati*.

Once a year, however, the ceremony of initiation takes place. This consists of stamping the mudrās with a heated metallic mark by the guru. It takes place on Āṣādha Śuddha Śayanī Ekādaśi which falls in June-July. On this occasion the seniormost Svāmi of Uḍipi brands only two mudrās-the śankha and cakra-on the other Svāmis of Uḍipi. Then these latter impress the two mudrās on their lay disciples. The following puruṣa sūkta mantra addressed to Sudarśana is recited on the occasion:—

Sudarsana mahā-jvālā koṭi Sūrya-sama-prabhā l cakrānkita namaste astu dhāraṇāt muktidaḥ-bhava ll The Grāmapaddhati, however, has a different mantra to

^{1.} Cf. Goldstücker, Lit. Rem., ibid; Bhandarkar, Vaisnavism, p. 86.

give in this connection. We shall mention it anon. The mark of the cakra is impressed on the right shoulder, and that of the conch, on the left.¹

An admirable picture of the great Madhvācārya and of the method by which he recruited disciples into his fold is given in the Puttige version of the Grāmapaddhati. The occasion when the Madhva muni is introduced is the following:—the Kötīśvaras about whom we have mentioned some details in connection with punishments in early Tuluva, were wandering at will when they came upon a Madhya sage of great resplendence. He was calm but with a vertical sectarian mark of (gopi) candana on his forehead. His arms were staff-like, and they were stamped likewise with sectarian marks. He was the very fire (pracandam) of the Madhva-mata in the Kali age. His limbs were likewise impressed with mudrās. On his left side were impressed the mark of lotuses (?). His left eve was raised looking at the forehead (kapālam ālokita), and he was wrapped in meditation on the Lord whom he had won in his heart (hrdi pratipannam). He wore an auspicious garland of supadma (Orris Root), and (appeared as if) he had. absorbed the essence of the brahmanda. He sang the praise of the Lord Nrsimha and of Visnu:-

^{1.} I am indebted to Vidvān Paṇḍit Raghavendra Ballāļa of Niḍambūr, Uḍipi, for this information. I am told that there is another method of wearing the marks called the pañca-mudrā-dhāraṇa. This consists of having another conch mark on the left chest; and a discus on the right chest and on the stomach. For women the two discus marks are impressed on the shoulder. Cf. Srinivasacarya, Uḍipi-ksetra-mahimā, p. 38. See Infra. B. A. S.

ūrdhva puṇḍrāṅkitaṃ sāṅtaṃ candanena ūrdhva-

pundrakam I

āmūla mudrānkita-bāhu-daṇḍaṃ Kalau yuge Mādhva
mata-pracandam N

punaś-ca mudrānkita sarva-gātram vāmetare (?)

samsthita nīla pa(pā)tram 1

kapālam-ālokita-vāma-netram dhyāyantam Īsam hṛdi pakṣi (prati)pannam U

kaṇṭhe samāŝliṣṭa-supadma-mālaṃ brahmāṇḍa-piṇḍīkṛta bindu-jālam l

gāyantam-īsasya Nṛsimha-līlām dhyāyantam-ādyam-hṛdi kōlarābam (?) 11 1

Seeing him the unfortunate Kōṭīśvaras bowed to him who was like the mount Mandāra, and confessed their sins. They told him their story, how they had been condemned for perjury (asākṣitvena ninditāḥ); and they begged of him to protect them (pāhi pāhi Mahā-bhāga kṛpāle[uḥ] dīnavatsalaḥ).

The sage in great sympathy assured them of his protection. And the kind muni branding the mudrās (on them) took them into the fold of Viṣṇu:

kṛpākara sa Bhagavān iti-uktvā ca-abhayam dadau l tapta mudrām tatam kṛtvā matam Vaiṣvambhara-abhidham N The following mūla mantras or fundamental principles called the aṣṭākṣara mantras were then recited in honour of the auspicious name of Viṣṇu, the Ḥṣi called Vāmadeva and the famous Chandonuṣṭap, which lead to salvation:—

^{1.} The Puttige version.

tathāṣṭākṣara-mantraṃ-ca Viṣṇu-nāmānkitaṃ subhaṃ l ṛṣiś-ca Vāmadevākhyaḥ Chandonuṣṭup prakīrtitaṃ II tathā Nārāyaṇo devaḥ kaivalyārtha-pradāyakaḥ l asya-śrī-Nārāyaṇāṣṭākṣara-mahā-mantrasya II

Vāmadeva ṛṣiḥ Anuṣṭup Chandaḥ śrī-Nārāyaṇaḥ-devatā mahā-Viṣṇuprityarthe jape viniyogaḥ hrām-iti ṣaḍaṅgam śāntākāram-iti dhyānaṃ Om namaḥ Nārāyaṇāya mūla mantraḥ

Then in the twelve parts of the body such as the forehead, etc., the great sage made the mudrādhāraṇam of the śankha, cakra, gadā, padma, and the dhvaja. These are famous over the world as the pañca-mudrā:—

phālādi-dvādasa-sthāne mudrā-dhāraņam āha sah l šankha-cakra-gadā-padma-dhvajaih-ca parišobhitāh 11 etā prašastāh lokesmin pancamudrā prakīrtitāh I lalāte Kesavāya-iti tathā Nārāyanāya-iti-ca 11 hrdaye dharanam karyam parsvayoh-tad-anantaram 1 tadvat Mādhava-Govindāva daksine Visnave-iti-ca 11 vāme.....(?) bāhumūle visisyate I tatah Trivikramāya-iti kapolādhah(rdha[?]) tu daksine 11 anyasmin Vāmanāya-iti S'rīdharāya-iti tatkare I Hṛśīkeśāya te tubhyam-iti kanthe vidhīyatām 11 idam pavitram paramam gopaniyam prayatnatah I kadācit-nopadestavyam kṛtaghnāya durātmane II mayā vusmākam-uktam yat sādhitam sva-prabhāvatah I purā cakradhara's 'srīmān bhītam (prītah?) mām uktavān-kila II kanthe ca tulasī dāma bhrūvor madhye ardha-pundrakam I mukhe ca-astāksaram yasya Visnur-eva na-samsayah u

Then the great sage advised them thus:—" This holy and very secret mantra should be pronounced; it should never be taught to the wicked and the ungrateful (kṛtaghnāya durātmane). Verily was the mantra secured by me from Viṣṇu who wore the cakra, had a tulasī garland in his neck, a puṇḍraka mark on his forehead, and the aṣṭākṣara in his lips. Therefore, (prosper and) continue my teachings!"

So saying the great Madhva ascetic, who was duly worshipped by them, went away. The Brahmans, who were now purified, resided in that $gr\bar{a}ma$ (location?) having received the permission of the king.

In another connection we have a more detailed description of the method of conversion adopted by the great Madhva sage. The occasion was the following:-A Brahman youth of the village of Belanie murdered his wife and her lover. The youth was punished by the people of the village with the permission of the king thus: he was to be expelled along with his family from the village, and he was to go on pilgrimage along with them. So they went to Mahabaleś(vara) in Gorāstra (evidently at Gokarna), and to Thence they came to the tirtha called Avimukta. Krodheśa (in Śańkaranārāyana), and finally to Ananteśa(vara) at Udipi. Here they came across a great muni adorned with the mudras of sankha, cakra, gada, and padma. To him they confessed their guilt and how they came to be condemned. The great sage medi-

^{1.} The Puttige version.

tated for a while and then presented them with the holv tīrtha together with a śālagrāma which grew in that locality. This salagrama was called Janardhana. poor folk then continued their way and reached the Ghat region, where in their anxiety to eat a ripe jack fruit they forgot the śālagrāma they had left behind them at a distance of four krosa. When they hurried back to recover it, they were overjoyed to find the casket which contained the \$\salagrama\$ but the \$\salagrama\$ itself they could not remove because it had got itself transfixed in that place. Although a heavenly voice assured them that spot would become their own property and that god Janardhana would become their family god, yet they returned disconsolate once again to the great Madhva sage. He now converted them into Vaisnavism by the seven following methods- tapta mudrā, astāksara mantra, mudrā harana (?), mudrā lepana, mrt-snāna, mudrā laksana and mudrā dhārana kārva:-

Munim-ālokayāmāsuḥ pūrvadṛṣṭaṃ mahātmanā l
so-pi dṛṣṭvā mahātejāḥ pālayāmāsa śāstrataḥ ll
tapta mudrāṃ tataḥ kṛtvā mataṃ Vaiṣṇavasaṃjñakaṃ l
tathaiva aṣṭākṣaraṃ-mantraṃ parañcopadideśa-saḥ ll
ā no bhadre-ti mantreṇa mudrā-haraṇam-ucyate l
amandair-iti sūktena mudrā-lepanam-iṣyate ll
akṣibhyānta (?)-iti mantreṇa mṛdā snānaṃ viśiṣyate l
phālādi-dvādaśa-sthāne mudrā lakṣanaṃ āha saḥ ll
śaṅkha-cakra-gadā-padma dhva (bhujaiḥ ?) ca parišobhitaṃ l
eteṣām-ca praśastāś-ca loka-mudrāḥ prakīrtitāḥ ll
lalāṭe dhāraṇaṃ kāryam ato-deveti mantrataḥ l

idam Vişnurcā-nityam hrdaye dhāranam smṛtam M dakṣine bāhumūle-tu trīni pada-iti mantratah I tathaiva vāmamūle-tu Viṣṇoḥ-karmāni mantratah II tad-Viṣṇuḥ-iti mantrena kapole dakṣine smṛtah I tad-viprūsa-iti mantrena kapole vāmake subhe II Viṣṇoḥ-nuketi mantrena uttamānge vidhīyate I prathat (pratak?) Viṣṇukaṇṭha-dese mudrayā-cakra-

samjñayā 🛚

praviṣṇava-iti kukṣau samyakt-avidhīyatām l yasya tripūrṇā mantreṇa pṛṣṭa-deśe vidhīyate ll tadasya priya mantreṇa vāma pārśve viśiṣyate l tāvām vāsmī (vāsti[?])-iti mantreṇa dakṣiṇe pārśvage śubhe ll iti-eva dvādaśa-aṅgeśu veda mantraiḥ vidhīyatām l idam pavitram paramam gopanīyam prayatnataḥ ll kadācit-na-upa-deṣṭavyam kṛtaghnāya durātmane l

6. THE BHĀGAVATA SĀMPRADĀYA

Round Anantesvara, an essentially Saivite temple, lived in early days the Smārthas of the Bhāgavata sāmpradāya from whom as well as from the Kōtīśvaras, Madhvācārya recruited disciples into his fold.² This is

^{1.} The Puttige version, Ch. 194. Cf. the description given in the Padma Purāṇa, Vol. IV. Ch. 25, pp. 1799-1810. (Poona, 1894) where the prātapta-śankha-cakra vidhiḥ ūrdhva-punḍra-dhāraṇa vidhiḥ, aṣṭāk-ṣara-mantra-abhyāsa prakāraḥ, etc. are given in detail.

^{2.} The following conclusively prove that the Anantesvara temple was a Saivite temple: the image of Isvara itself in the temple; the shrine (gudi) of Subrahmanya and the nāgakallu or serpent stones near the vṛndāvana and the bhojana-śālā; the stone Nandi or bull which has been partially destroyed by the people; and the flag of the bull which has been replaced by the Garuda paṭa in our own days. B. A. S.

not surprising, since there was one fundamental conception that was common to the preaching of Madhvācārya and that of the Bhāgavata sāmpradāya sect: it was the path of bhakti along which the votaries of both the sects could reach mukti. The origin of the Bhāgavata sect is, however, still an unsettled problem. An equally difficult question, at least so far the history of Tuluva is concerned, is the advent of the Bhāgavatas into Tuluva.

Nevertheless it is permissible to assume that since no mention whatsoever is made of the Bhāgavata sect in the Ālupa records of the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries, they may have come to Tuluva somewhere in the middle of the twelth century. We base our assumption on the following identity of Tuluva tradition with the evidence of epigraphs.

^{1.} The Bhāgavatas of Tuļuva claim to be Šaivites but observe the Ekādśis like the Vaisṇavites. They wear the gopicandana but not the mudrās. On the Bhāgavata sect, read G. A. Grierson, Bhaktimārga in James Hastings, Encyclopaedia of Religions, II. p. 539, seq. (Edinburgh, 1909). B. A. S.

^{2.} Sir R. G. Bhandarkar maintains that the Bhagavata system based on the Pañcaratra samhitās, "must have developed in about the third century B. C...." Vaiṣnavism, Saivism, etc. p. 54. (Poona, 1928) But we are yet nowhere near the solution of this question. Read, D. L. De, Pañcarātra and the Upanisads, I. H. Q., IX. pp. 645-662; Amarnatha Ray, Śri Kṛṣṇa and the Source of the Bhagavata-gītā, ibid, pp. 188-196; J. Przyluski, The Satvant Satvata, and Nasantya, ibid, pp. 88-91, may also be read in this connection. Rice quotes an opinion of Bühler—which I am unable to trace—to the following effect—that the Bhagavatas are "the oldest Hindu sect of which we know, older than Buddhism." E. C. III. Intr. p. 22. It has been reported in the newspapers that Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar has come across the name of Bhagavata in a Brahmi inscription. B. A. S.

The oldest matha of the Bhagavatas is at Balekuduru close to the ancient harbour of Hangarakatta in the Kundapūru taluka. According to the tradition current in Tuluva, the founder of the matha was Kaivalyāśrama Svāmi. When he visited Māyāgundi near Udipi, he was requested by Parapali Nāyaka to use his spiritual powers and cause a spring to rise in a tank which that generous soul had dug on the rock at Mavagundi. Kaivalyāśrama Svāmi acceded to the request of Parapali Nayaka, sat in the tank, and in no time caused a spring to rise in it. But the spring gushed forth so violently that the Svāmi was drowned. Parapala Nāyaka, frightened to death, was told, however, in a dream by the Svāmi that that was to be his vṛndāvana. It was accordingly done so by Parapaļi Nāvaka.2

Tradition, therefore, connects the earliest memories of the Bālekuduru matha with Parapali Nāyaka who lived, as we have seen, in A.D. 1138. This would mean that the Bhāgavata sāmpradāya took firm roots in Tuluva only in the first quarter of the twelth century A.D.³

^{1.} But the original seat seems to have been near Kundāpūru itself. This points to a coastal migration of the sect in early times. My first visit to the Bālekuduru matha in December 1932 proved barren. But I still hope to procure some valuable information from that matha. B. A. S.

^{2.} This was related to me by the priests of the Durga temple at Mayagundi in Puttūru, near Udipi, on 15-1-1933. B.A.S.

^{3.} A copper plate grant in the Kūdli Śringeri matha, assigned to circa A.D. 1154 but of doubtful authenticity, mentions the victory which Vidyasankara Tīrtha of Śringeri won over the Rāmānuja dootrine and the Bhāgavata-ārādhya. The ruler given in this grant is Puran-

A most famous name among the Bhagavatas of Tuluva is that of Bhattacarva Prabhakara, who is reputed to have been the compiler of the Grāmapaddhati. and, as some maintain, to have been himself the founder of the Balekuduru matha. This latter statement, however, seems to be incorrect, if we are to reply on the evidence of the following stone inscription found in the Iśvara temple in the Nādamaduvu village of Sāgara tāluka in the Mysore State. This inscription relates that Vitthaya Senabova was the spiritual son (diksā-putra) of the rāya-rāja-guru Bhattācārya, and the son of Hāruvigoppa Vāmana Hebbāruva and Sātakkā. The epigraph is dated S'aka varusa 1220 neya Hemalambi samvatsarada Phālguna S'u. 15 \bar{A} , which works out to A.D. 1298 February Thursday the 27th, the week-day not corresponding.1 The ruler mentioned in the grant is the

dhara Rāya of the Kadamba family. But the copper-plate mentions Vidyāranya Svāmi of Sringeri as well. Since this is inadmissible, because Vidvāranva Srīpāda came after Vidvāsankara Svāmi, and since the grant contains may passages which make no connected sense. its evidence cannot be relied upon. E. C. VII. Sh. 79, pp. 29-30. text pp. 78-90. We could have identified Vidvātīrtha Svāmi with Vidyāśankara of the Madhva-vijaya but for the fact that the latter is distinctly spoken of as having hailed from Kudyapustūrāva of Tuluva. If the above Kūdli grant were authentic, we could have placed Vidyātīrtha Svāmi's victory over the Bhāgavata-ārādhva before Madhvācarva's sojourn to the south, i.e., in about A.D. 1256-59. But under the circumstances, this is impossible. I may also note that, according to Mr. Govindācārva Svāmi, the Bhāgavata sāmpradāva followers, due to the pressure brought about by the Muhammadans in western India in the eighth century A.D., migrated to the south and peopled the Telugu, Tamil and Karnātaka lands. I. A. XLII. p. 196. B.A. S.

^{1.} E. C. VIII, Sa. 99, pp. 109, 297; Swamikannu, Ind. Eph. IV. p. 198; Sewell-Dikshit The Indian Calendar, Table 1.

Mahāmandaleśvara Kōṭi Nāyaka of Hosagunda. It cannot be determined whether Bhaṭṭācārya was the rāja-guru of that ruler; neither can it be ascertained when and how he came to Tuluva.¹

But what seems certain is that the Karnātaka too contained centres of Bhagavata sect. We shall briefly -sketch the history of the Bhagavata sampradaya in the Karnātaka. The most prominent centres were Hariharapura, Bhandigade, Jambitige, Talakad, Tirthamutturu, and Mulbagal. The Smarthas of Hariharapura assert that their Svāmis are descended in spiritual succession from Bhattapādācārva, one of the immediate disciples of Sankarācārva. The matha contains two shrines—one dedicated to Nrsimha, and the other to Sāradā. The former is said to have been set up by Sureśvarācārya, another immediate disciple of Sankarācārya. The car festival (rathotsava) of both Nrsimha and Sarada takes place at an interval of about twelve days in the month of Vaiśākha (March) every year. The disciples of the matha are confined mostly to Koppa, Müdgere, and Tirthahalli. In A.D. 1393 in the reign of the Vijavanagara king Harihara Rāya II, the viceroy Sābanna Odeyar granted a stone śāsana to Rāmacandra Sarasvatī Odeyar of Pratāpa Hariharapura matha, embodying certain gifts of rent, in confirmation of the royal grant made by Harihara Raya himself to the same spiritual head of the matha.2

^{1.} Śri Brahmānanda Svāmi of the Bāļekuduru matha died on Tuesday, the 26th June 1934. He had a good following in South Kanara, Shimoga, and in some places in the Mysore State. B. A. S.

^{2.} E. C. VI. Kp. 49, p. 85; Mys. Arch. Rep. for 1916, p. 9. In a

About fifteen miles from Hariharapura is another Smārtha centre in the village of Bhaṇḍigaḍe. The god in this māṭha is Gopāla Kṛṣṇa; and its disciples are known as Kōṭadavaru, because they hailed from Kōṭa in Tuluva.¹

About a mile from Hariharapura is the agrahāra of Jambiţige which contains a small neat temple of Nīla-khanṭheśvara built, however, so late as A.D. 1733. It has about fifteen houses of well-to-do Smārtha Brahmans.²

Talakāḍ in the Tirumukūḍlu-Narsīpura tāluka is an important seat of the followers of the Bhāgavata sāmpradāya. Since the village named Koppāla, a tew miles from Talakāḍ, belongs to this matha, it is also called by the name Koppāla matha. This matha was founded by Kṛṣṇānanda Svāmi, who was third in apostolic descent from Padmāpādācārya, the immediate disciple of Śankarācārya. The spiritual succession is thus given:—

Sankarācārya
| Padma pādācārya
| Viṣṇu Svāmi
| Kṣīra Svāmi
| Kṣrṣṇānanda Svāmi

stone inscription found at Hariharapura dated A.D. 1573 Mādhava sarasvatī is mentioned as the head of the Hariharapura matha. My. Arch. Rep. for 1932, pp. 204-205.

^{1-2.} Mys. Arch. Rep. for 1916-17, p. 9.

In succession to Kṛṣṇānanda Svāmi, after a long interval, came Abhinava Bālakṛṣṇānanda Svāmi, whose disciple was Bālakṛṣṇānanda Svāmi. The disciple of the latter is the present Svāmi.

In the Tirthahalli tāluka we have two Smārtha centres—one at Tirthamuttūru and the other at Mulbāgal. The disciples of the matha at Tirthamuttūru are a sect of Brahmans known as the Pañcagrāmadavaru (or those of the Five grāmas), with whom the other Smārthas do not mix. The god of this matha is Nrsimha.

The head of the Smārtha matha of Mūļbāgal claims spiritual descent from Padmapādācārya mentioned above as the immediate disciple of Sankarācārya. It is said that Padmapādācārya was appointed head of the matha at Dvārkā by Sankarācārya himself. According to the tradition current at Mūļbāgal, Agniruddha Kṛṣṇā-

^{1.} Mys. Arch. Rept. for 1911-12, pp. 11-12. The matha contains some spurious records dated Saka 819, and Saka 916 of Mādhavamantri of Vijayanagara history. Ibid. Rice has edited one of these grants which he assigned to circa A.D. 1437. But since the ruler mentioned therein was called Vijaya Vidyā Deva Rāya, and since it was only a copy supplied by the people, Rice declared that it was unreliable. In this spurious record the Koppāļa matha is called the matha of Agniruddha Kṛṣṇānanda Svāmi, otherwise known as the southern Kāṣī of the Gajāraṇya kṣetra. The village of Koppāļa is described in this record to have been presented to Kṛṣṇānanda Svāmi by the minister Mādhava of Vijayanagara, in the presence of the god Arkeśvara on the bank of the northern stream. The god worshipped in this matha is Vēṇugopāla Kṛṣṇa. E.C. III. lntr. p. 22, TN. 47, p. 76.

^{2.} Mys. Arch. Rep. for 1916, p. 9. An inscription dated A.D. 1037 mention the Pañcagrāmas. E. C. XI. Dg. 126, p. 74. The Puttige version of the Grāmapaddhati has a detailed description to give of the Pañcagrāmas which we abstain from citing. The Sahyādri-kanḍa is said to refer to these Brahmans, P. I. Adhyaya, 147. B. A. S.

nanda Svāmi, twenty-seventh in apostolic succession from Padmapādācārya of the Dvārkā matha, came to the south about three centuries ago, and stayed at Mulbagal. On the invitation of the Ikkeri king Bhadrappa Nāyaka, he went to the Tīrthahalli tāluka, and founded a matha named after Mülbagal at Bhadrasamudra, and received a grant of an agrahāra from the Ikkeri king. Before leaving for Tirthahalli, however, he founded a matha at Talakad, and appointed a Svami to it. The Mulbagal matha thus claims that the mathas at Dvarka and Talakad are its branches. It is said that "some papers in possession of the matha show that its claim was admitted by an assembly of disciples and scholars that met at Surat about thirty-five (i.e., now fifty) years ago". It is maintained that Krsnananda Svami is described in grants ranging from A.D. 1660 to A.D. 1662, as the promoter of the doctrines of Visnusvāmi, who, according to the published succession list of the Dvarka matha, was the immediate successor of Padmāpādācārya. The god here as at Talakād is Gopāla Krsna. Mr. Narasimhācārya's conclusion in regard to both the mathas may be noted:-"It may therefore be concluded that the mathas at Mūlbāgal and Talakād came into existence in about the middle of the 17th century."1

We may note in passing that in a copper-plate grant assigned to A.D. 1661, registering the gift of two villages named Ranaghata and Hirekalyāni, to the head of

^{1.} Mys. Arch. Rep. for 1919, p. 38.

the mathu Visnusvāmi, by the Vijayanagara ruler Ranga Rāya, the following apostolic succession is given:—



Whatever may be the claims of priority which the Mūļbāgal matha can put forward over the mathas of Dvārkā and Talakād, one fact seems clear from the above account of the Smārtha mathas of the Karnāṭaka, namely, that no Bhāgavata sāmpradāya matha in that region seems to be so old as the Bāļekuduru matha of Tuļuva which dates back to the twelfth century A.D.

1. Mys. Arch. Rep. for 1919, p. 37. In A.D. 1812 the Mysore ruler Kṛṣṇa Rāja Odeyar III gave a sanad remitting some specified taxes to Kṛṣṇānanda Svāmi of the same maṭha. The sanad was written in Persian, Marāṭhi and Kannada. The reason given for the remission was that the Svāmi represented to the State that the balance left after the payment of the jōdi to the government did not suffice for the upkeep of fhe maṭha. Mys. Arch. Rep., ibid, p. 43. Sturrock confounds the Sivalli Brahmans with the Bhāgavata Brahmans, and relates that the headquarters of the latter is Sivalli! S. C. Manual, I. pp. 147-8. B. A. S.

Popular conception assigns the advent of the Kānapāthi Jegis into Tuļuva in the ninth or tenth century A.D. This is erroneous, as will be shown in a later treatise in which the question of the introduction of Muhammadanism into Tuļuva will also be discussed.

CHAPTER VI

LIFE IN EARLY TULUVA

Summary:—1. The different peoples of Tuluva. 2. Seasons and State of Agriculture. 3. Commerce. 4. Dress and Ornaments. 5. War. 6. Amusements. 7. Means of Communication. 8. Sources of Revenue. 9. Education. 10. Religion. 11. Customs and Manners. 12. A Picture of a Tuluva Household. 13. The Būdu or Manorial House of a Tuluva Chieftain.

1. THE DIFFERENT PEOPLES OF TULUVA

The Pāḍadānas or folk-songs of Tuluva are a valuable source of information for a study of the life which the Tuluvas led in early and mediaeval times. Tuluva is rich in these folk-songs which have not yet been utilized for historical purposes. There are innumerable Pāḍadānas in the Tulu language. Out of these we shall select only three kinds of Pāḍadānas that have a direct bearing on the history of Tuluva. These are the Pāḍadānas concerning heroes like Kōṭi and Cennaya; historical folk-songs of the type of Deva Pūñja which describe the wars between the Venūru and Bangar rulers; and ordinary folk-songs which are sung on marriage and such other ceremonial occasions.¹

1. Most of the well known Pādadānas have appeared in the Pādadonolu by the Rev. Männer. Mangalore, 1886. A. C. Burnell translated them in the pages of the I. A. Vol. XXIII, seq. Mr. Ganpat Rao A, gal has published a few of them. And my own collection which contains altogether different variants of most of these Pādadānas, has been enriched by perfectly new Pādadānas not found either in the collection of Männer or in those of Mr. A **gal. Strictly*

The activities of the Tulu people centred round their village which with its wet and dry lands, its ferry master and his boats, its local trade and cottage industries, its little public school and thatched abode of the astute village astrologer, its boar hunt and such other inexpensive games, its well defined Billavar house and Bunt habitation, its village assembly and rules of social ostracism, and finally its $b\bar{u}du$ or the manorial house, was a self-contained unit which was responsible for the preservation of the traditional culture of the Tulu people.

The country was inhabited by practically the same people we see in it now, but the names of some seven or eight prominent classes are mentioned in the folksongs of Tuluva. They are the Billavars, the Bunts, the Brahmans, the Jainas, the Mogers, the Māpillas, the Pombadas and the Holeyas. Reference, of course, is made to the Koragars, the Kunbis, the Vakketars, and in later Pāḍadānas, also to the native Christians. Of all these peoples the Billavars and the Bunts seem to have enjoyed the most prominence, as can be made out from the fact that one of the longest and most well known of the folk-songs, Kōti Cennaya, deals entirely with the daring deeds of two Billavar boys; while the

speaking any account of the life of the Tulu people based on the Pādadānas ought to give in brief some of the main folk-songs which are the basis of the remarks made in this chapter. But considerations of space compel me to refer the reader to the pages of the *I. A.* where Burnell has, on the whole, given an accurate rendering of the Tulu Pādadānas. B. A. S.

achievements of a Bunt hero are sung in a famous Padadana called Agoli Manjanna. Here and there mention is continually made of the Bunt Baragas without whose sanction and suggestion not even the Ballala, the chief of the Tuluva manor, found it advisable to execute the smallest of his plans. The name Ballala, however, bespeaks a Karnātaka origin. There were the Brahmans, who were, as else where, the custodians of learning. Besides these, the Kunbis, who may reckoned to be one of the earliest inhabitants of Tuluva, and the Holeyas, who had something to do with the ownership of land, also figure in the Pādadānas. In the village of Adakanelliniine the Koragars lived in their own sheds called koppu, while the Mogers lived in their voni, and the Bakaders (Bakuders) lived on the plains. In the Padadana called Bobbariye the career of the Mapillas is described. Christians are referred to in the song called Todakinār.2

We may have some idea of the people in Tuluva from the Pāḍadāna of Bobbariye. The seven children of Murava Byāri and Fātima started from their home at Sulikall Kaḍañjar on a life of trade and went to Peiryer Kaḍañjar. An astrologer called Nāḍu Balaya told them that they would succeed in their enterprise if they came across a puñjapaṭṭa (small building) built on twelve māgaņes where cocks crow, and if they built "a roof over Brahmā and his post". "If Puñja

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 41.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 96.

is the bhūta for the paṭṭa for the thousand people in the twelve villages he must ride in a palanquin at full speed and must cry out thrice" said they. These above-named people, including the Brahmans, lived on agriculture.

The Kunbis, who appear to be the same people as the Kurumbars or Kudumbis of the southern peninsula, are described as having a temple of their own. When Kōti and Cennaya followed their guide Cennaya of Edambūru, through the forest of Kemmule, they saw something about which they questioned him thus:— "What is it in the distance, Cennaya of Edambūru, what is it that in height equals a cocoanut tree and in circumference an umbrella and is shaped like an umbrella? Is it a mosque of the Māpillas? Or a temple of the Kudumbis? Or a temple of the Jainas? Or simply a temple? Or is it a gudi belonging to the bhūta Bhramara?" 2

The Pombadas, or the traditional devil-dancers, spent their time in the propitiation of the *bhūtas*, who formed the powerful deities of the village. When the rains set in, as can even now be seen all over Tuluva, the Pombadas set themselves to making umbrellas and such other monsoon requisites; while with the advent of summer, they got everything ready to personate the spirits of the dead heroes: A Pombada's services were called into requisition by no less a personage than the

^{1.} Ibid, XXV, p. 240.

^{2.} Ibid, XXIII, p. 47.

Ballāļa himself, who would "get up early", and go "in search of a man to represent the bhūta". And then to the Pombada thus would the Ballāļa say—"O Devildancer! Today in my būdu a sthāna is to be dedicated to a new bhūta Pañjurļi. I have asked for an auspicious day, and today is the day. Therefore you must come to represent the bhūta and dance. You must come in the evening and be ready. All your neighbours will come at this time. You must come soon. Otherwise there will be delay on your account. Take care; you must come. Now I am going". Such indeed was the polite order which the Ballāļa gave to his tenant, the devil-dancer.

The Holeyas or Pariahs were mostly concerned with the servile work of the higher classes. The Ballāla of Parimale tinding the two young heroes, Kōṭi and Cennaya, obdurate, as regards the grant of a field, sent his nephew to pacify them. "And the nephew then took some precious shawls in both his hands, and said to the brothers—"O my heroes! make peace, and I will give you whatever you want". "Give your shawls to the Pariahs that have long served you! We will never enter the hall we have once left", replied the brothers."

The Māpillas are spoken of as a trading class. Indeed, the Pāḍadāna called Bobbariye (Bābu Byāri?) seems to deal with the advent of Muhammadan traders

^{1.} I. A XXVI, p. 67.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 67.

^{3.} Ibid, XXIII, p. 32.

into South Kanara. They are mentioned as traders in stone, cocoanut fibre and such other articles in which even to this day they deal. In the Pāḍadāna called Attāvara Doyyonguļu, we are informed that they occupied a high place in the government of the Bangar kings of Pāṇemangalūru; and that they remained on terms of utmost goodwill and respect with their Hindu brethren of Uddara (Uddaļa), near Manjēśvara. It is customary for the bhūtas called Doyyonguļu of Uddara, during their annual festivals, to go to the masjid of Uddara and give an assurance to the memory of a nowforgotten Mahammadan general, who, it is said, once presented them with lands in the same place.

Besides these Māpiļļas, there were the Mogers who are described both as fishermen and as warriors in the Pāḍādanas. The Brahman whom Cennaya had intended to slay, warns them of the "hostile reception which they (i. e., Kōṭi and Cennaya) would meet at the hands of the Koragars living in their sheds called koppu, the Mogers in their sheds called vōṇi, and the Bākaḍers of the plains," of the village called Aḍakanelliñjine. And when the two heroes actually reached the village, the Mogers, who were "carrying bows" with "each a blade of grass in his hand," fell prostrate before them crying for protection.

The Mogers were sometimes compelled to perform feats of strength by the Ballala. The Ballala of

^{1.} Aygal, Doyyongolu, p. 2. (Mangalore, 1924).

^{2.} I. A., XXIII, p. 41, op. cit.

Mardal wanted to build a sthana for the bhuta Paniurli. He had felled as many trees as possible with the aid of the carpenters, and then he wanted to have them dragged to the place where the sthana was to be built. "One day he went to Polippu and called all the fishermen, and said to them-'How many males are there in your house?' and when one fisherman answered that they were four in all, and another two, the Ballala said, 'O you fishermen! hear, each one of you: trees have been felled in the forests for the purpose of building a sthāna for the Ballāla's būdu. All these trees should be brought to the $b\bar{u}du$ because the day is fixed for the building of the sthana and for raising the upper storey; therefore the work is stopped. Therefore, tomorrow all of you must come together; one or two hundred of you must join together and bring the trees to my house. The man who does not come will be fined. And if he does not pay the fine, I will see that nobody gives him chunam or fire."1

The Brahmans and the Jainas, who occupied a high position in Tuluva society, were mainly given to the study of scriptures and the use of arts. The former would always refer to their prāsana book for every little incident that needed an explanation. In such grave matters like the building and consecration of a bhūta sthāna, the advice of the Brahman astrologer was most keenly felt. The Ballāla of Mardāl, who will figure often in these pages, having got all things ready "went

^{1.} I. A., XXVI, p. 65.

A. K. 30

to the fortune-telling Bhaṭṭa's house. When he went he found the Bhaṭṭa sitting in the verandah and telling fortunes." The Ballāla said, "O Bhaṭṭa! I came to visit you; according to your fortune-telling on that day my racing buffaloes survived. If not, they would have certainly died. Now I have to get a sthāna built; and a cot and other ornaments for Pañjurli bhūta are all ready. Now you must find out the auspicious day, and tell me on what day we should establish Pañjurli bhūta, and dedicate the sthāna to him. For this purpose I am come to you."

And when Panjurli thus wanted to make himself felt on the plains below, and chiefly in the royal budu of the Ballala Mardal, the prasana book of the Brahmans proved another source of income to them. astrologers they now became village doctors, and aided the villagers in the matter of stopping the spread of diseases. The bhūta Panjurli thought of a plan. He slipped into the cow-pen of the būdu and entered into the bodies of the buffaloes. The result was a violent coughing among the cattle of the $b\bar{u}du$. In utter despair the Ballala hurried to the house of the Bhatta, with two cocoanuts, the husk of which had been removed, as "Then the Ballala said, O Bhatta! In my presents. budu my racing-buffaloes are ailing. They are on the point of death. Whatever I do is of no avail. never had such sickness before. Please, therefore, discover the cause and use some means to stop the dis-

i. I. A. XXVI, p. 66.

ease. You only can do it, there is no other way'.'' And the Bhatta came to the rescue of the Ballala not before the latter had added half a rupee to the cocoanuts in the shape of fees for his astrological calculations. Then the Bhatta said,—"You see! There is great distress in your house. But because the present you have placed has come forth at the sign of Meşa, I can say it is a bhūta with a hog's face... Now he asks sacrifice from you ... and to have a sthāna built for him and sacrifices offered." Thus did the Brahman stop the disease in the Ballala's house.

Over and above this vocation of theirs, the Brahmans are described as tilling the land. The Ballāļa of Eḍambūru, to whom the two young heroes, Kōṭi and Cennaya, has been introduced by Cennaya of Eḍambūru, in order to persuade the brothers to remain in his own principality, as a safeguard against his enemy, the Ballāļa of Pañja, offered them the field tilled by Brahmans. "Oh, heroes! It now behoves you to remain in my kingdom. Do you want the field called Berampoļļi cultivated by Brahmans, or that called Guttuberke cultivated by the Buṇṭs, or that called Maṭṭil Nālaja cultivated by the Billavars?" asked the Ballāļa.³

While so much in detail is known about the Brahmans, little can be gathered about the Jainas except that they had bastis of their own, that many of them were Settis or heads of trade guilds, and that they had

^{1-2.} I. A. XXVI, p. 52.

^{3.} Ibid, XXIII, p. 48.

Ballāļas among them, some of whom seemed to have believed in spirit worship. In one Pāḍadāna we have a traditional account of the manner in which the great statues of Gōmaṭa at Kārkaļa and Vēṇūru were built.¹

As regards the Billavars and the Bunts, however, very much can be gathered from the Padadanas. Although there is nothing to prove in the folk-songs that the Bunts were given to warfare and the use of deadly weapons, vet they are always mentioned with respect as the Baragas, which term is applied to them in some parts of Tuluva even today.2 The activities of the Billavar heroes are described in the long Pādadāna called Koti Cennaya, which we have referred to in these pages. In one version of this song, these Billavar heroes tell the Brahman who was in charge of dharmakatte, that they wore the thread to mark their religion but were Billavar by caste!3 The Billavars are always described as the age-long and privileged toddy-drawers of the land. When Cennaya wanted to pick up a quarrel with Buddvanta, Köti advised him thus:-"You, Cennava, are cruel. Anger and strife may happen between you and the foolish Buddyanta. Our caste-occupation is to extract tāri. Do you, Cennaya, attend to that business."4 Then, again, when the poor Joti Brahman girl, who had been left blindfolded in the forest, because she has

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p. 216, seq.

^{2.} The Pāḍadāna of Kānta Bāre and Pūva Bāre deals with the activities of these two Bunt heroes. B. A. S.

^{3.} I. A. XXIII, p. 40.

^{4.} Ibid, XXIV, p. 148.

attained puberty before marriage, had her bonds loosened, she asked her deliverer, Sāma Āļva Baidya of Parimale, why he had come to the forest. And he replied:—
"I came to take palm-juice from the palm-trees which are in the forest. This forest belongs to the Ballāla of Parimale, and I am the palm-climber of this forest".

What an amount of importance was attatched to the work of extracting juice from the palm-trees can be seen from the fact that the palm-climber of Parimale had been given a camel by the Ballala to carry to his own house thirty maunds of palm-juice every day. Sāma Āļva told the girl of the Joti Brahman caste that, when he had heard her crying, and had seen her from the top of a palm-tree, he had hastened down and tied his camel to a palm tree. Then the girl questioned him why he wanted a camel. To which he replied, "I take the palm-juice on the back of the camel. I take thirty maunds of palm-juice every day. I cannot carry it on my head. Therefore the Ballala has given me a camel. He is very kind to me."

The revenue from liquor formed a very important source of income of the Ballāla's establishment.³ On what terms the Ballāla gave his palm-tree plantations for tapping to the toddy-drawer, we are not able to find out. But that the Ballāla owed much, if not all, of his greatness to the exertions of the toddy-drawer of

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p. 296.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 297.

^{3.} See infra Section 8.

his badu can be made out from the most generous manner in which he promised to assist Sama Alva in regard to the celebration of a marriage. The Ioti Brahman girl whom Sāma Ālva had rechristened Dēvi Baidvedi. was betrothed, according to one version, to his nephew Sāyana Baidya; and Sāma Āļva went to his master, the Ballala of Parimale to receive aid and permission from his patron to celebrate the marriage. The Ballala atonce answered—"Ask me whatever you want! O Alva. tell me how much you require," and, again, "O Sāma Alva, why are you afraid? I will help you. I will give you whatever you may require." And although what poor Sāma Ālva asked for was only half a korjī of rice,—which, his sister shrewdly observed, had, according to etiquette, to be returned to the Ballala-vet the spontaneous offer of help from the Ballala proves that the master of the royal budu considered his palm-juice climber not in the light of a servant but in that of a worthy friend.

2. SEASONS AND STATE OF AGRICULTURE

The principal occupation to which the high and the low devoted their attention was agriculture. The lands cultivated were not the high grounds but those on a lower level. High lands were used as grounds for pastures or as arecanut plantations. All arable lands were divided into three kinds—the bailu, the majelu, and the betta. The bailu ground is described by

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p. 296, op. cit.

Buchanan as the lower part of the valleys which are watered by small streams, from whence canals are dug to convey the water to the fields which by this irrigation are able to give annually two crops. The majelu land is higher than the bailu, and is provided with small reservoirs which ensure one crop, when the rains last only for two or three months. From some of these reservoirs the water is let out by a sluice. raised from others by means of the yātam, or by a basket suspended between ropes. The betta land is the highest part of the rice grounds, and is provided with neither streams nor reservoirs, so that the crop depends entirely on the rains. In some places there is another kind of rice ground called patla. During the rainy season it is so inundated that it cannot then be cultivated; and as the water dries, the rice is transplanted. On the bailu land there are three crops in the year; the first venelu, the second suggi, and the third kolake. This last is only produced by a few sprouts particularly favoured with water.1

This division of the agriculture seen by Buchnan in the year A.D. 1800 was in vogue since early times in Tuluva. We find in the Pāḍadānas definite reference to the yenelu and suggi crops. When the Ballāļa of Perimale had finished apportioning the fields between the two brothers, Kōṭi and Cennaya, on one hand, and Buddyanta, on the other, "he advised them to make some offering to Buddyanta, whenever they might sow

^{1.} Buchanan, A Journey, III. p. 37.

it. With the intention of sowing the yenelu seed at the proper time, they gathered all the refuse of the field and set fire to it. And then after eighteen days of the month of Paggu (i. e., April-May) had passed, they ploughed the field with two pairs of he-buffaloes. Thus did they cultivate the yenelu crop."

When they cultivate the fields, and transplant crop, the Tulu people sing folk-songs like the following:—

Oh! Payyo!

Oh! work! Oh! work! Oh! work, work - Oh! little Payyo!

Where Payvo was born, there was a kingdom.

To one mother there was one child.

Oh! work! Oh! work! Oh! work, work, Oh!

little Payyo (Chorus)

In the southern kingdom was Payyo born;
When Payyo was a little suckling child,
His mother was called to Heaven! (Chorus)
(And) when he learned to take food,
His father was called to Heaven. (Chorus)
He has out-grown his infancy, the little Payyo;
He has gathered wisdom, and he has learned the

arts, Payyo. (Chorus)

(And) he has taken quickly to the writing on

sand. (Chorus).2

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 32.

^{2.} The original of this folk song is with me. It is sung by the farmers in Banniñje of Udipi. Payso means a child. B. A. S.

And it was over the second crop of the bailu land, viz., the suggi crop, that there broke out a great quarrel between the two brothers and their rival; Buddyanta, which ended in the death of the latter and the starting of the former on a life of wild adventure. The suggi crop is cultivated in the Tulu months of Nirnal and Bontel (i. e., October-November). When Kōti made a wide opening in one of the banks, the water flowed out with a rapidity equal to that of rivers during the monsoon. Seeing this, Buddyanta called out his servants and they shut up the opening made by Kōti by means of grass. Kōti then said-"Take care! Buddyanta! The suggi crop is the only means of food for the monsoon for you as well as for us! If you have enmity against us, avenge yourself on our persons, and not on the crop that we have cultivated. Let, therefore, the water which is flowing out according to custom, flow out in its proper course."1

That the Tulu people had also dry lands can be made out from the reply given by the Ballāļa of Edambūru to the heroes who requested that a harrow and a pick axe called Rāma and Lacana (Lakṣmana) be given to them. "I have dry lands, sowing sixty muras of paddy, banks which burst and walls which fall down. Therefore, I want the harrow and pick axe," said he. It is evident, therefore, that in early times, the same system of cultivation prevailed which we see today in Tuluva.

^{1.} I. A., XXIII. p. 34.

^{2.} Ibid, XXIV. p. 150.

The Pādadānas enable us to know something about the produce of a field. After confessing that they had killed Buddyanta, Köti and Cennava went to the Ballala of Parimale, and requested him to give them a field called Bakimar in which five seers of rice could be sown, and 500 muras produced, and which lay in front of the Ballala's mansion. When the Ballala, however, replied that the produce of that field was reserved for governmental purposes, the heroes begged him to present them with that paddy field which lay to the south of the budu, and in which three seers of rice were sown and 300 muras produced.2 We can have an idea of the produce of the land also from the parting words of the Ballala of Parimale to Devi Badiyedi, the mother of the two heroes, who had cured him of a severe pain in the leg. "As you have given me medicine and cured me, I wish to give you a present. I will give you land enough to sow four muras of paddy and a house. It will produce one korjī of rice for you annually."3

How much a field yielded can be gathered by the method of agriculture adopted by the Tulu people. They ascertained the time of cultivation with the aid of

^{1.} I. A. XXIII. p. 37.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 37. In this version it is correctly stated that the two brothers approached the Ballāļa of Parimaļe. But in Ms. No. 15 (I. A. XXIV, p. 150) the heroes are said to have gone to the Edambūru Ballāļa. This is impossible, since it was the Parimaļe Ballāļa who had originally promised to give food and clothing to the twins. (I. A. XXIII p. 36). The twin brothers afterwards took shelter under and fought for the Ballāļa of Edambūru against his enemies. B. A. S.

^{3.} I. A. XXV, p. 308.

the astrologer. The two brothers questioned their rival, Buddvanta, as regards his designation. He was walking in a great haste. "I am going to the hut of the astrologer Bira Ballya at Matti to ascertain the day for sowing the kambula," said Buddyanta. That they knew the value of manuring the fields and of tilling the soil in a proper manner can be seen by the way in which they worked in the fields. Then the heroes went to Erajha, calling the following persons- a servant named Kanada Kattire, a Muggere called Irala Kurave, and Baila Bākuda, and ordered them to cut the grass and the sides of the banks of the kambula, to heap some soil to be burnt, and to scatter some leaves (over the field). "We know a good week and day in which to begin the cultivation. Now we want to plough with four vokes and to sow in a corner", they said to each other. "We left three months in the middle and began to cultivate the kambula in the month of Sona. month of Sona we made the servants chop leaves in pieces. We made them plough five times, and harrow nine times. We made them plough in such a way that there was no difference between the soil and water. Buddyanta made his servants plough his fields nine times and not even a blade of grass bent!"2

That the method of ploughing has not materially changed since early times can be made out by the more detailed description given by Buchanan of the

^{1.} I. A. XXIV, p. 146.

^{2.} Ibid.

yenelu crop in Tuluva. "The kinds of rice that are transplanted for the Yenelu crop on Bylu land are cultivated as follows:—Between the 14th of May and the 14th of June, water the ground intended for raising the seedlings for two days, and then plough it twice; all the water, except two inches in depth, being let off at each ploughing. The two ploughings must repeated every other day, until the eighth time. field, before the last ploughing, is manured with ashes, and with dung, in which, while in the cow-house, the leaves of every kind of bush and tree have been mixed. The mud is then smoothed with the Mutu Pallav or plank drawn by oxen. The seed, prepared by causing it to sprout, is then sown very thick, the water being three inches deep. Next day the water is let off. On the fifth day, when the shoots come up, they get as much water as covers the half next the ground, and every day, as the plants grow, the quantity of water is increased. On the ninth day the water is let entirely off. and is not given again until the eleventh day. If worms affect the plants, about the end of the third week the water is again let off for three days, and some ashes are sprinkled over the field to kill these destructive animals. The seedlings must be transplanted between the 30th and 35th days."1

For an efficient system of cultivation they wanted some implements over and above the human labour which they could always command. The two heroes

^{1.} Buchanan, A Journey, III, p. 38.

proceeded on their way after having a passage-at-arms with the Ballala who had refused to give them what they wanted. "And while they were walking, they resolved to get back from the plough-wright the implements of husbandry, which they had given him to be repaired, and which they used for cultivating the field anilaia: namely, the plough made of the tree called bēdijna, having a handle made of the tree called tiruva, some iron nails, and a voke made of the tree called koraji." And for not receiving promptly from the ploughwright the ploughtail, the plough-share, and the plough-shoe, they punished him with death. These simple and crude implements have survived to our own days. Buchanan says the following as regards the implements while describing a double-ploughing of the venely crop. "The mud is then smoothed with the Mutu Pallay or plank drawn by oxen. The plough in use here is neater than usual in India but is an implement equally wretched."2

The harrows used in ploughing were usually called Basarūru pannu kotture. The wife of Buddyanta, who had just been sent to his account by the two brothers, on seeing the red-coloured water of the stream, remarked that it must have been the water which her husband had spat out when chewing betelnut. "This is not water spat after chewing betelnut but blood," said the servant-maids. When they had passed

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 38.

^{2.} Buchanan, A Journey III, pp. 38-39.

on a little they saw a harrow (always described as Basarūru pannu koţţure in the text) dressed up.1

The different kinds of cultivated lands wanted some kind of irrigational devices by which water could be diverted from a lower to a higher level or from a softer to a harder ground. The Tuluvas paid some attention to this necessity; for the Pādadānas mention the use of pikota, which even the women could handle with ease. The two brothers after defeating the warriors of Savalandadka and Nelli, were directed to the house of Palli Bannaya. On reaching his house, however, they found that Bannaya was away on some work. His wife received them well but while they sat down to chew betelnut, Cennaya swooned. Kōti then begged the wife of Bannaya to give him a little water. "Having heard this, she went inside, took a jug of silver, and went to the seat by the well. She held a pikota, which was so high as to reach the sky, let it down and drew pure water from the bottom of the well." In another place the pikota is thus described. Duganna Kāver of Ekkār and Timmannatikāri (Timmanna Adikhāri) of Tibera wandered through the berke of Tangodi. And while describing their sojourn, the Pādadāna relates how "Kodamantaya required that both a gudi and a palace should be built for him. A pikota worked by three hundred men fell in pieces."3

^{1.} I. A. XXIV, p. 150.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 212.

^{3.} Ibld, XXIII, p. 92.

Kōṭi and Cennaya would not have been able to find out their way so easily to the house of Paḷḷi Bannaya, had it not been for the cowherd boys of the village of Pañja. This principality of Pañja was a great rival of Edumbūru. But unlike Edumbūru and some other small states, it paid sufficient attention to the condition of cattle and pasture. "While the younger brother lay with his head on the elder brother's leg, and while the elder brother was searching for the lice, Cennaya saw a company of boys playing together. A thousand cows and a thousand she-buffaloes were feeding on the grass in the plains of Pañja."

It was because they had such good pasture grounds that they had an excellent breed of cattle. When Palli Bannaya's wife, Kinni Dāru, recognized the two youths as her own brothers, she hastily ran into and out from her house, and with some grass in her hand, "called a red-cow that had gone to graze. She drew five seers of milk from the cow and boild it down to two seers." Even supposing it was only two seers of milk she drew at one time, as another version of the same story informs us, yet it shows a better state of pasture than that which is met with to-day in Tuluva.

That a land with such rich pastures could not but be happy is evident from the present which Sāma Āļva, the privileged toddy-drawer of Parimaļe, gave his royal master, the Ballāļa, in return for a reward of twelve

^{1.} I. A. XXIV, p. 211.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 213.

pagodas from his master. Sāma Āļva said, "May I speak one word to my master? If you will not be displeased with me, I will say it." The Ballāļa ordered him to say on. Then he said, "O Sir! I wish to give a small present to you. I wish to give you a pair of racing buffaloes." When he heard this, the Ballāļa exclaimed in astonishment—"What! a pair of racing buffaloes! Who do you think would wish to give me such a big present? I think that the present which I have given you is a very small one. A landlord may give presents to his tenants. But a tenant will be ruined if he thinks of giving presents to the landlord."

Cultivation with the Tuluvas depended, as it does now, on a shrewd observation of the seasons. In Tuluva the Sālivāhana Saka has been in vogue. But the Tulu year is luni-solar and is divided into twelve months: Suggi (March 15th-April 13th), Paggu (April 14th-May 14th), Bēṣa (May 15th-June 14th), Kārtel (June 15th-July 16th), Āṭi (July 17th-August 16th), Sōṇa (August 17th-September 16th), Nirnāl (Kanyā) (Sept. 17th-Oct. 17th), Bontel (October 18th-November 16th), Jārde (November 17th-Dec. 15th), Perārde (December 16th-January 13th), Puyintēl (January 14th-February:12th) and Māyi (February 13th-March 14th). Of these Bēṣa and Āṭi alone are from the Sanskrit language.

The agricultural habits of the people can be made out from some of their felicitous proverbs like the

^{1-2.} I. A. XXV, p. 303.

^{3.} Cf. Buchanan, A Journey, III, pp. 27-31.

following:—Kīrte kāyoḍu, Rōhini porpoḍu, Margasiroḍu muddoḍu, Ārda polompoḍu, aḍarada kīrada phāḍdi batta baṅgāra korōḍāvu. (The ground must be hot when under the star Kṛttikā [Kirte]; it must be hotter, to the point of baking, when under the star Rōhiṇī; the mud must be turned into paste while under the star Mṛgaśiras; and it must be swept away by the heavy rains under Ārdrā. And then only will the corn ploughed with a mere stick yield gold in return!)

3. COMMERCE

The Pādadāna of Bobbariye gives us a list of articles in which the people traded. The children of Murave Byāri and Fātima, by name Kāyiri, Kalasappa, Genda, Bombaya, Sinkiri Suni, Summuni, Ananta, Sarapoli and Sūna Jana Nāyaka, said, "Now let us go and trade in the villages'. They put on their shoulders a vessel holding about one-fourth of a seer and a vessel of bellmetal into a bag. 'We wish to sell a thousand bundles of sugar and coir of cocoanut fibre', they said. They sold the sugar and the coir. They got a bamboo and a plaited cocoanut leaf from each house. They built a shop of cocoanut leaves on the sea-shore with sixteen partitions of thick bamboos. They put sixteen kinds of goods within the sixteen partitions. The goods weresago, oil-seed, wheat, Bengal gram, renke (a kind of grain), rāgi, rice-flour in a basket, red tender cocoanuts, chunam in shells, oil in a wooden vessel, bunches of arecanuts, betel leaves heaped in a basket, toddy in bottles, clothes, tobacco in matting and sugar. Though they sold them all, they did not recover the cost of their arecanuts and living." In the same Pādadāna, we are informed that these children of Murave Byāri, after sailing for a year and six months, "produced gold, pearls, rubies, diamonds and carbuncles".

It may be remarked that this story of Bobbariye deals with Māpiļļas and not Tuļuvas. But we may bear in mind that the Arabs, who had opened their trading stations on the coast of Malabar proper, seem to have come to Tuļuva as well in early mediaeval times. And the Māpiḷḷas mentioned in this Pāḍadāna are the Tuḷuva Māpiḷḷas i.e., descendants of Arab fathers and Tuḷuva mothers. This can be made out from the names of the children of Murave Byāri and Fātima.

From this and other Pādadānas we can gather some details concerning the trading centres of those days. Thus in the Pādadāna on Bobbariye, the following is said:—"The original home of Bobbariye was an island. He was born at Goa and grew up at Cochin. His mother was Fātima and his father was Murave Byāri of Sulikal". In the above passage the names of Goa and Cochin are mentioned. The name Ejanagara (Vijayanagara) continually appears in the Pādadānas as the place from where the Tuļuva Ballāla used to get the fashionable and privileged barber. King Dharma "born on a heap of mallige flowers, piled up as high as a man's

^{1.} I. A. XXV, pp. 239-40.

^{2:} Ibid, p. 239.

neck, and on a heap of sampige flowers piled up as high as a man's middle," while in his great palace called Kancikadanga in the regions of Lower and Upper Kañci, saw that the time had come for him to get himself shaved. "'Who can shave me?' asked king Dharma. 'On the other side of Ejanagara on the Ghats there is a barber called Binnadi Kāra,' said his servants''.1

The Padadanas also speak of Surat as the place from where the people got tobacco. Kōti and Cennaya after killing the impertinent washerman, who had compared them to crabs, washed themselves, and "sat down by the foot of an asvattha tree, and having sat down, they undid a small bag containing betel leaves, arecanut, and the like, and chewed pieces of arecanut and pancoli betel-leaves. They ate white lime and Surat tobacco". A version of the Panjurli Padadana mentions the names of Mecca and Cannanore. The four sons of Guru Sarapoli and his wife Gollarama Devar took to the sea, and coming to the sea-shore they asked the sailors—"Can we go to Mecca or to Macao, or to the Island, or to Cochin, or to Cannanore?"3 The bhūta in the same Pādadāna is described as going to "the temple of Venkataramana at Tirupati where he did not cease to cause the Garuda-vahana to turn round." \$ In addition to these details the mention of costly shawls, wheat, sugar, and the like, together with rubies and such other precious stones, which never seem to

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 97.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 39. 3-4. Ibid, XXV, pp. 272, 274.

have been manufactured or mined in Tuluva, lead us to suppose that the people must have got them from places outside the district.

In Tuluva itself, however, there were some well known manufacturing centres. Very many of the articles, as, for example, chunam, cocoanut fibre, etc., have been the sole monopoly of the fisher-folk like the Mogers, and the Mapillas of the coast. We may note the names of a few cloth manufacturing centres of Tuluva. King Dharma after finishing his toilet at the hands of the barber, Binnadi Kāra of Eianagara, asked his followers to tell him the remedy for having touched the barber. They advised him to take an oil bath in a tank which was constructed for the purpose; and when he had finished it, his servants asked their royal master from where they could get the silken clothes with which they "A black could wipe off the water from his head. silken cloth manufactured at Kāvūru, a white silken one made at Boluru, a silken cloth called sopu kambali, a silken cloth made at Iravaduru, a silken cloth of which one piece could stretch to three hundred gāvudas,2 a silken one which can be soaked with a tear, and a silken cloth which can be hidden between the nail and the finger, are required," said the king. All the silken clothes were brought and the king dried his head with them.3

I. A., p. 114; ibid, XXIII, p. 98.
 1 gāvuḍa = 12 miles.
 I. A., XXIII, p. 98.

Kāvūru, Böļūru and Iravadūru (near Perdūru), were in those times centres of cloth manufacture. Böļūru has still some families of traditional weavers. If the Pādadānas can be believed, Kāvūru and Böļūru seem to have been well known for their silk cloth. They are often mentioned in the Pādadānas as places where silk cloth was manufactured. The Ballāļa of Parimaļe "reared the children (Kōti and Cennaya), supplying them with food, a mura of rice, and a piece of thick pachade cloth, and a mandiri. He also presented them with a white silk cloth from Böļūru, a black silk cloth from Kālūru (Kāvūru), and a girdle too."

How they built ships and traded can be gathered from the Pādadāna of Bobbariye. The children of Murave Byāri and Fātima realizing that their trade in the interior was a failure, resolved to embark upon a voyage. "'We have not put on fine hanging cloth or even a mundu (a small coarse cloth). We have not collected fifty or hundred pagodas in a year. Therefore, we must go and trade in a ship. So let us sell our small she-buffalo worth seven pagodas,' said they. And they sold the she-buffalo. They put three pagodas in their waist-cloths, and five pagodas in a bag. Fishermen of seven houses and Byaris (Mapillas) of seven houses were collected together, and (they) went to Periyer Kadanjar. They visited Brahma and folded their hands. 'Byāris! Are you in your caste or ejected?' asked the villagers. 'We are in our caste, not ejected'.

^{1.} I. A., p. 142.

said they. 'If you are in your caste, you may come into the temple-yard and touch the door, and tell us what you want,' said the village people. 'We have heard that there are trees fit to build ships within the village of Brahma,' said they, and put the money which they had taken on a silver plate. The Brahmā bhūta, pleased with the money, became proud, and his head was turned. 'You had better examine the trees from the lower to the upper forest,' (said he). They saw a fine ponne tree and a siruva tree, and a berpaloyi tree, for the keel of the ship, and a teak tree fit for the planks. They called a carpenter, and brought some black and rough rice with some white tumbe flowers and sprinkled them over the trees. In this way they sprinkled them twice. They made a cut as -large as a horse in a tree of the size of an elephant. They cut down the trees. Then they began to cut another tree but could not cut from it a piece as small as a sāra or as large as a rupee. They called Nādubalaya and asked him to refer to the prāsana book on a black plank made out of a kadre tree with white couchs. It was found that they would succeed, if a puñjapatta (small building) was built in twelve maganes (villages), where the cocks crow, and if a roof was built over Brahmā and his post. 'If Punja is the bhutu for the patta for the thousand people in the twelve villages, he must ride in a palanquin at full speed and must cry out thrice. If he does this, we will present him with a beak made of gold, wings of pearl and legs

of silver, and over Brahmā we will build a roof,' said they. The *bhūta* cried thrice from the palanquin. Then they presented a beak of gold, a feather of pearls, and of silver and built a roof for Brahmā.

"They cut down trees and made them into logs by measure. They cut off the top of a tree for the mast of the ship, and the trunk of a tree for the ship. They made holes in the trees and tied ropes and strong creepers to them and drew forth the trees. They dragged them from the forest. They passed by a stone of Kalkuda and a place called Pallita Palke. They came to the ferry of Palli," and passing a number of places. "came to Ponnedongadi and Povullanad. They dragged the trees to the higher ground at the junction of the rivers. They sent for Mallenadecchava and made him build a ship. They made seven decks in the ship, an office for business, holds for keru and haruve planks, a well, a cow-stall, a room for children and women, boxes for pearls, gems, diamonds, and carbuncles, and also for rice and paddy. In this way they built the ship and finished the whole work. 'Now the necessary things of the ship are required. The old fishermen, Anantanna Marakala, Bobbariye Kunniyale, and Kendi Devu, must come too, and the fishermen must be told what we want for the ship,' said they. 'Do you buy for five thousand pagodas a silken sail, a mast of coral, an anchor of pearls, nails of wax, fish-oil, goats, sheep, toddy and other liquors,' said the fishermen. They drew up the ship on the sea-shore. They filled it with rice and paddy from all the villages. They fastened the ropes and made straight a small mast. They said the wind was coming, and raised the silken sail".1

The description of a vessel given in the above long passage may be taken to be a fair example of a Tuluva ship. The method of getting together the neighbouring fisherfolk and Māpillas, and the remarkable spirit of good-will revealed in the above Pāḍadāna on the occasion of the building of a ship still prevails in Tuluva today.

In addition to work in chunam, sugar, cocoanut coir, and ship-building, the Tuluvas had recourse to another industry. This was the manufacture of and trade in liquor. On reaching the house of Payya Baidya, that lay between the rival principalities of Pañja and Eḍambūru, Kōṭi and Cennaya called loudly Payya by name three times. His wife answered only for the second call, and coming out for the third, said, "He is not present. He is gone to draw toddy from the kadamba and date trees in the forest called Sanka (Sanka male) in the east" This is the same tree which has become memorable in history because of its connection with the origin of the Kadambas of Banavase. It is called in Tulu īndada mara and baini.

We may note here something about the tapping of palmyras. Sāma Āļva, the rescuer of the Jōti Brahman girl, was a typical Tuļuva palm-climber. In Tuļuva

^{1.} I. A. XXV, pp. 239-241.

^{2.} Ibid, XXIII, p. 42.

palm-climbers go early in the morning to the large palm-tree gardens, with a curved bill-hook, a dry gourd and a climbing rope twisted into a ring which they place round their ankles which are protected by small pieces of leather, and begin tapping the tender cocoanut shoots with a polished stone. Sama Alva went in a like-manner to the forest of the Parimale Ballala. "On a certain day he went to the forest as usual, and tied the camel to a tree; and with his knife and dry gourd he climbed a palm-tree and took the pot containing the juice and passed it into his gourd." The work of tapping is generally over late in the afternoon, although in some towns the tappers usually climb the cocoanut trees in the evening. In an earlier section it has already been noted how important this industry was to the establishment of the Ballala.

Another industry in which the Tuluvas were, as they are, proficient was masonry. The statue of Gomața at Kārkaļa, the Jaina bastis of Mūdubidri and the temples of Kollūru and Kadri, to mention only a few, are examples of the architectural skill of the people. The Pāḍadāna of Kalkuḍa is a panegyric on the architectural ability of the Tuluvas.

No mention of the industries of Tuluva can be complete without an account of the manufacture of hats and umbrellas. The heavy rains of Tuluva necessitate the manufacture of hats and umbrellas of

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p. 295.

palmyra leaves. These are the muttales, the korambus; and the panoli tatras of Tuluva. Sambu Kalkuda, the father of the architect of the Gomata statue of Kārkaļa, on receiving message after message from the kings of Bēlūre and Belgola, at last determind to go on a journey. He however first supplied his pregnant wife with all the necessary articles of food, and then "he put the thread on his shoulder to let the people know his caste, and held up an umbrella."

As equally curious commodity of Tuluva is a covering for the head which is called in Tulu muttale. These coverings are manufactured out of dried arecanut bark (pāle, hāle) and are shaped like a boat measuring six to ten inches in length and three to four inches in breadth. When worn on the head they reach from just over the forehead to the back of the head: Each community has got a hat of its own; there is the Vokkeligerena kannita nēru with its perāvukombu (i.e., twist in the back), a very small article costing at present four annas; the Manyere kannita with its eduru kombu (i.e., twist in front) costing as much, Kaipuderena tippimuttale or the addamuttale (i.e., worn crosswise over the head) costing two annas; and the nēri muttale (or the straight covering) of the Koragars which costs only one anna. The first one is worn by the Bunts; the second by the Holeyas in general; and the third is the special head covering worn by a sect of the Holeyas called the Kaipudes.2

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p. 221.

^{2.} See infra Section 4.

497

The Tuluvas, on the whole, paid in corn and other necessaries of life for commodities which they bought, or as wages for work turned out by the labourers. They of course knew the use of money. We have already seen how the children of Murave Byari sold their she-buffalo for eight pagodas, and how, in the same story, the bhūta Brahmā, on seeing money, joyously permitted the Byaris to cut trees from his forest. The custom in Tuluva has been to pay for work done in terms of the commodities required in the daily conduct of life. The Ballala of Parimale lay in agony. A thorn had caused him severe pain. "Who else can give me medicine?", asked the Parimale Ballala, when all the physicians of Parimale had failed to cure him of his illness. The name of Devi Baidvedi was next proposed and the Ballala at once sent his servants with a letter requesting her to come to his budu. To the man who gave her this letter, Dēyi Baidyedi said-"You, the bearer of the letter, had better take rice for your hire in Erajha." She brought a seer of rice, a cocoanut and two cucumbers, and gave them to the bearer. "If you want to cook and take your good here, there is the hut for travellers built by my brother. If you want to prepare your meal here, I can get pots made of bellmetal. If you are going away immediately, Oh, my master, you may go." said she. This is how they paid wages for running on an errand.

^{1.} I. A. XXIV, p. 119.

The Ballala of Mardal, who intended to propitiate the bhūta Pañjurli, got together carpenters and workmen in order to build a sthana. To pitch upon a place, he had, as we have already seen, to go and consult the Brahman astrologer. "The next day, being Friday, when the sun arose and came above the horizon to about a man's height, carpenters came to the Ballala with their axes, ready to fell trees, and stood before him with clasped hands. Then the Ballala said to them-'O Carpenters! Are you come? Sit down in the verandah, I will come shortly.' So saying he ordered a big pot to be filled with water, and taking the water and four seers of jaggery and four sugar-canes, and twenty tender cocoanuts with him, the Ballala called the carpenters to him and went with them to the forest; and seeing good trees asked the carpenters and got them felled at their suggestion. After the trees were felled, the Ballala and the carpenters being exposed to the hot sun became thirsty, and felt as if saffron powder had been put into their eyes, and began to breathe hard. Then the Ballala gave to each carpenter one tender cocoanut and one pot of water and a quarter seer of iaggery."

When they had thus refreshed themselves, they again fell to their work, and before the sun went down, got ready planks and posts for the sawyers who were to come on the next day. "In the meantime", the story continues, "the sun set and it became dark. Then all of them went out of the forest and took their way home.

After they (had) reached the būdu, the Ballāla gave to the carpenters their batta which consisted of rice, cocoanuts, salt, tamarind, chillies, curry-stuff, and onions, and everything else they needed, and ordered them to come earlier on the next day, and sent them away." And afterwards "the sawyers were called and the work was given on contract. And they were told to do the work quickly and finish it in fifteen days."

Those who carried loads on their heads were paid in the following manner. The Ballala of Parimale sent Devi Baidvedi home loaded with presents. "While they were vet far off, Sāma Ālva's sister recognized her son and daughter-in-law and called her sons and said-'Look at Dēyi Baidyedi! When she went from among us, she went alone. Now, when returning many bearers with infants, cradle, and cow and calf, are accompanying her!' 'Yes,' said they, 'fortune is smiling upon us'. So saying they came to meet Deyi Baidvedi. Afterwards Dēvi Baidyedi told her husband to go to the garden and fetch large young cocoanuts to distribute them among the coolies who had brought the cradle, and when he had brought them, she gave two to each cooly, and said-'You must be tired with bringing my loads in the hot sun. You must be very thirsty; therefore, drink of these tender cocoanuts." Afterwards she brought rice and gave them rice at

^{1.} I. A. XXVI, pp. 62-63.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 65.

the rate of half a seer to each man, and gave them curry-stuff and everything necessary to prepare their food.¹

The same wages were given by a land-lord to his tenants working in the fields. Kōti and Cennaya wanted to have their kambla field ploughed. Kōti called together his tenants and finished his work. The charitable heroes gave to every one of the tenants, who had ploughed with the buffaloes, three seers of rice, and a leaf full of boiled rice. They presented all the villagers with oil to rub on themselves.²

The wages given by a royal personage differed not much in nature from those given by a Ballala or by a Billavar housewife. Sambu Kalkuda, whose history we know to some extent, reached the palace of the king of Belgola. The king ordered him to do fine work, "such as a basti with a thousand pillars, and with one hundred and twenty images. Seven temples with seven idols; a small temple inside and a garden outside; an elephant in the outer yard, and also a large idol called Gummata. Work such that only one door was opened, when a thousand doors were shut, and that the thousand doors were opened when a single door was shut; a building for dancing and another for dancing-girls, and also others for lodging; an elephant that seemed to be running, a fine horse and a lion." For one year and six months Sambu Kalkuda worked in stone. He won

^{1.} I. A. XXV, pp. 308-309.

^{2. &#}x27; Ibid, XXIV, p. 148.

universal praise from all. Then he thought of going home. He therefore went to the Ballala, and said thus—"It is a year and six months since I came. I must go to my native country. I came alone leaving alone a fully pregnant woman. Therefore I beg leave." The Ballala presented him with a cot, a chair to sit on, five torches for light, a stick to walk with, cloths up to the shoulders, and betel leaves to fill his mouth.

4. DRESS AND ORNAMENTS

The Pāḍadānas give picturesque details concerning dress worn by the Tulu people. Aḍūra Dēre Baidya desired to witness a famous cock-fight. With this intent he had four to eight cocks fed. Then he gave an early dinner to his nephews, and after dinner dressed himself after the Tuluva fashion. He tied a red turban on his head, and put his best slippers on his feet. He held a palm-leaf umbrella in his hand. "He put his best fighting-cocks into his nephew's hands. A number of spurs for the cocks he held in his own hands."

In Tuluva men seem to have worn a silver belt round their waist. The house where Dēyi Baidyedi was laid up for confinement belonged to one Birmanna, "a tenant of some dry land. He took off his waist belt of silver and placed it for her to hold on to." And children seem to have worn some kind of trousers and

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p. 221, 222.

^{2.} Ibid, XXIII, p. 19.

^{3.} Ibid, XXIV. p. 141.

coats. On the death of Dēyi Baidyedi at the hands of her rival physician, Birmanna Baidya, according to one version of the story, the Ballāla handed over the little twins to the charge of their uncle Sāyana Baidya. The children grew up into little boys, and one day "they saw Buddyanta's children playing with cashew nuts; and when they saw this, they went to Sāyana Baidya and asked him to give them some cashew nuts, and also implements for the game. He gave them trousers and coats, and had a horn blown in their honour."

The rivalry that began on the play-ground lasted till the end of their lives. Buddyanta and his children could never tolerate the rising of Kōti and Cennava to fame and power. Once while playing with cashew nuts and berries, Buddyanta's wife snatched away the berries from the hands of the twin brothers and beat them. They went crying to their uncle Sayana Baidya. "Oh! Uncle! Buddyanta's wife took away our berries by force and beat us," said Cennaya. "You did not listen to my advice," said Sāyana. "As she took the berries by force, they belong to her now; but Uncle Savana, where is that which the Ballala presented to our mother?" asked Kōti and Cennaya. They were, of course, referring to the grant of land made by the Ballala.2 Their uncle told them that there were two divisions of a kambala at Handiottibail, and that to get further information, they had to go and see the Ballala person-

i. I. A., XXIII, p. 29.

^{2.} Ibid, XXIV, pp. 120, 150.

ally. "The Ballāļa has got his face shaved and looks well, there is hair on our faces. We will not go as we are to see such a handsome face," said they. "Children, take pancoļi betel leaves from a vine on an arecanut tree and mundoļi from a vine on a mango tree. Dress yourselves with $k\bar{a}yeri\ karpoļi$ clothes, put these betel leaves into a cloth and go to the $b\bar{u}du$," said their uncle. On presenting oneself before such an august personage like the Ballāļa one had, therefore, to use a special dress.

An ordinary man, however, wore simpler dress. To him the singular Tuluva head-covering made from an arecanut bark, sandles for the legs, and a cloth round the waist, with a small shawl thrown across the shoulders was enough to ward off the roughest weather. The bhūta Bobbarive wanted a large sthāna at Mūlūru. and so he went there. He wanted to make himself known to the people which he did by digging a well called Mayadanga with the help of a thousand coolies. He disappeared in it but not before an unfortunate Pongada had seen him. Bobbariye took a promise from the Pongada that the latter would not inform any one of the former's disappearance. But the Pongada broke his word and Bobbariye punished him by sinking "him in a lotus tank for seven nights and eight days. Then the family of the Pongada searched for him and called aloud, and collected a hundred people of Mūlūru. All of them together prayed for him." Then the areca-

^{1.} I. A. XXIV, pp. 120, 150.

A. K. 32

leaf head-covering was found in a lotus tank, and they saw the marks of his feet descending into it but not ascending.¹

The arecanut head-covering was a special feature of the Tuluva dress. The richest as well as the poorest wore it. "Sāyana Baidya went to the Ballāla, who was sitting in his hall with great enjoyment. He had a hat of arecanut shell ornamented with a crest of peacock's plumes. On his head were garlands of jassmine flowers and of the flowers called ketaki." In the Pāḍadānas the Ballāla is always represented, while in state, to have worn the jassmine flowers and an arecanut spathe on his head.

Warriors too wore this arecanut head-dress. After passing a happy time at the $b\bar{u}du$ of the Ballāļa, Kōṭi and Cennaya thought of going out to play. The Ballāḷa of Parimaḷe encouraged them in this, and their uncle Sāyana Baidya being sent for, they were taken back to their native place called Erajha. So Sāyana took them to Erajha. When he left the $b\bar{u}du$ it was known to Ellūr Abbe of the Cāvaḍi, and as the children were leaving the $b\bar{u}du$, Ellūr Abbe saw them. She took off her padumarekke girdle of silver and presented it to them. "She brought a hat of parrot-colour for Kōṭi Baidya, and a hat of the colour of the padu bird (pigeon) for Cennaya. She had them dressed in these, and presented them by her own hand with a dagger called $R\bar{u}$ ma kengude."

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p. 241.

^{2.} *Ibid*, XXIII, p. 32.

^{3.} Ibid, XXIV, p. 142.

Warriors besides carrying swords by their side, putting marks of sandal paste, and dressing themselves in silken robes from Kāvūru, used to wear ear-ornaments too. Cennaya and Kōṭi before going to battle put on marks of sandal paste, and opened the box and took a black silken cloth from Kāvūru, and a signet ring from a curved box, and put it on. They put jewels in their ears and a thick cloth on their shoulders. With very poor people, however, the arecanut head wear serves a double purpose: as a protection for the head and as a cup wherewith to drink water.

The Pādadānas also contain notices of the dress of women. In the contemptuous letter written by the Ballala of Panja to his rival the Ballala of Edamburu, the former said how the latter being a weakling in the charge of the two heroes, Kōti and Cennaya, who had killed the great wild hog, was only fit to dress himself in the robes of a woman when the day of battle would The Ballala of Panja wanted the Ballala of come. Edambūru to send him the two brothers thus-" When you send them, let them stand up to fight. When they stand up, let the Ballala leave off male customs and let him dress as a female; let him put two cocoanut shells for his breasts; let him put on a small jacket, let him tie his hair into a knot, let him put collyrium on his eyes; let him put a sirā (sārī) round his middle, let him be dressed with flowers." Thus ran the letter.2

^{1.} I. A. XXIV, p. 270.

^{2.} Ibid.

As regards the jewels worn by the women of Tuluva, we have their specimens in the description given of Kalkuda's sister Karlutti who, desirous of seeing her brother's face after twelve long years, started from Kellata Mārnād, her native place, to the north in search of him. She prepared a meal for her brother, "tied it in a leaf, and combed her hair, putting a chaplet of pearls on her head. She put jewels on her neck and in her ears; jewels called vate and koppu; coloured garlands, copper rings; jewels called calaki on her hands; silver rings called pilli-menti on her toes. She put collyrium on her eyes and a mark on forehead. She tied round her waist a black cloth and she put on a green jacket. With all these things did she dress herself."

5. WAR

To the Tuluva women must be attributed in some measure the spirit of struggle which characterized the Tuluvas of early and mediaeval times. When the Ballāla of Parimale had sent for Dēyi Baidyedi, she was in a very precarious condition. "On leaving the Ballāla's house (Dēyi) walked by the sides of the paddy fields and began to feel the pangs of child-birth, little by little. She stood on the road, clasping a cocoanut tree bearing fruit of a red colour and dropped tears. At this time one Buddyanta came up, and on coming up he said 'Oh my mother! O Billavar girl! Is it the

^{1:} I. A., XXV, p. 224.

1.54

overflow of blood in your veins? Or is it the pride of wealth (that makes you stand thus)?' Dēyi replied—'If I have done this out of pride, I shall suffer hardship. If out of trouble, the children that shall be born of me will relieve me of it.' And a heavy penalty did the poor wiseacre, Buddyanta, pay, indeed, for his insolence. Dēyi Baidyedi's twins, the redoubtable Kōṭi and Cennaya, as we have a ready seen, twisted his neck and placed his dead body to guard over his own fields. And the woman whom Buddyanta had taunted was no other than that Jōṭi Brahman girl whom Sāma Ālva had rescued in the great forest of Parimale. Life in a Billavar household had, indeed, made her a proud Billavar woman.

In the Pāḍadānas some warlike people are mentioned. Thus the kind-hearted Brahman astrologer, as we have already seen, had warned Kōti and Cennaya that they would have to fight against certain people in the koppu, in the vōni, and on the plains. These were the Bākuders, the Koragars, and the Mogers.² They will figure again presently.

But heroes like Kōṭi and Cennaya carried other weapons too along with them. Before going to fight against the Ballāļa of Pañja, they took a little ricewater and made preparations for going out to battle with all the weapons of war. "They each put on a necklace on his body; they ornamented their waists

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 29.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 41, op. cit.

with girdles; they put golden necklaces on their bodies, they tied turbans of the colour of parrots and pigeons on their heads; they mounted a palanquin; they armed themselves with their dagger, equal to that of Rāma's."

Armed thus they went to their protector, the Ballala of Edamburu, who, in order to test them, asked them whether they were men who could save his kingdom or bring ruin upon it. "In the upper-storey of your mansion there is a mura of sessamum seed. Please order that to be given to us," said the brothers in reply. The Ballala ordered his servants to hand over the mura to the heroes. "The elder brother, Kōti, then showed the dexterity of his hand; when he had showed it, the seeds flew up in the air in powder as fine as red turmeric. Then the Ballala said-'I have thus seen your skill; now I want to see the skill of your brother, Cennaya.' 'O my lord,' said Cennaya, 'your swinging cot has four iron chains. Please order one of them to be given to me.' 'Can iron be cut by a weapon of iron?' said the Ballala. 'If iron cannot be cut by iron, will one man be able to slav another?' said Cennava. 'If this be so, will the chain be refused to you?' said the Ballala. And he ordered one of the chains to be given to Cennaya. When the latter showed his skill, all the four chains fell in pieces."2 It is heroes of this type that the Tuluva people remember with pride and admiration.

^{· 1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 88.

^{2.} Ibid.

Besides swords and arrows, the Pādadānas also mention guns. The reference to guns, however, is of a more recent date. But there seem to have been some people, who are supposed to be traditional manufacturers of gunpowder. The gun is mentioned in the Pādadāna Kōti Cennaya. On the way through the great forest of Kemmule, a Brahmana priest demurred to offer pūjā on their behalf to the god. 'You had better see us perform a pūjā with an upright heart!', said the heroes, and stood with bent heads on a flat stone and prayed. "Let a drum be tied to an arecanut tree and another drum hung on an areca-tree, and let all the musical instruments be heard! Let the sound of a horn and of a gun be heard! Let a torch that has been extinguished burn again! Let a golden plate be placed at the door!" The Brahmā bhūta heard their prayer and all men and women trembled.1

The Tuluvas had also war-drums. We gather this from the words of the Brahman astrologer who, as already noted, foretold the career of the two heroes. After informing them that they would meet with certain people, he continued—"Kemēr Ballāļa of the village named Pañja keeps a watchful guard. Therefore, be very cautious on your way. If you think that what I say is false, on your way to Nelliñje, you will see white stone berries and Kōti Baidya's palanquin, and hear the sound of the war-drum."

^{1.} I. A. XXIV. p. 243.

^{2.} Ibid, XXIII, p. 41.

Some idea of a Tuluva fort can be gathered from the following words of the nephew of the Ballāla of Parimale who, when told about the angry departure of the two brothers Kōṭi and Cennaya, because of their not having received a courteous treatment at the hands of their patron, remarked thus to his uncle: "They should not be left unpursued, in their own land. We must construct a fort on the paddy field called kolala and must give them battle."

The Tuluvas gave a good account of themselves on a battle field. In the final struggle between Edamburu and Pañja a battle scene is thus described—"Then the five hundred men of Edambūru and three hundred men of Kolapādi, together with the Ballāla's son-in-law Rukku Ballala, who rode on a white horse, and held a white umbrella, went forth to the battle-field. The battle was to be fought in two fields: one in which seven seers of rice and the other in which seventy seers of rice, could be sown. And Cennaya was to command The Ballala's son-in-law, the field of seven seers. Rukku Ballala, stood at a place which was separated from the battle-field by three rice-fields, in each of which thirty seers of rice could be sown. Before going to the battle, Cennaya said to Kōti, 'When, my brother, shall we again see each other's face?' They talked a great deal to each other and clapped their hands on their shoulders with joy. Then they advanced with their faces towards the battle-field. Cennaya went to

^{1:} I. A., XXIII, p. 38.

the field of seven seers, and Koti to the field of seventy seers.

505

Cennaya began the battle in the field of seven seers. He slew a great number of the enemy, who fell down dead, like bundles of suggi crop; and completely routed the enemy and thus ended the battle in that quarter. Then he came to the field of seventy seers, where the battle lasted seven nights and eight days, during which they tasted neither food nor drink. 'Come back, my brother, I will proceed with the battle', said Cennaya. Kōti answered-'O mv brother, listen to me. You will not be able to stand the attack of the enemy. Wheel-fireworks are showered on our heads; quoits are hurled at our necks; our breasts receive sword cuts; and from behind are discharged showers of arrows. I know that it is your habit to do everything with the greateat circumspection, fight with the greatest caution'.

"While Cennaya was bravely fighting, Kōti sat down to chew betel, when Candagidi shot an arrow at him from behind. The arrow struck him in the lower part of the leg. He cried out—'O my brother! the cur of Pañja has bitten me from behind. If it had been a dog of high breed, it would have met me in front. Therefore, I will not look at the arrow with my eyes, and I will not touch it with my hands'. So saying he kicked the arrow back with his leg. The arrow struck Candagidi in the breast and he fled from his body to Kailāsa, and he was then borne to the Ballāļa's

verandah. The Ballala sent a man to bring some medicine from a physician named Barma, living in the village of Sanje Manje. Köti cut the whole of the enemy to pieces and brought the battle to an end."1

The Tuluvas had some signs of surrender in times of war. When the two brothers went to Nellinje, always expecting the enemy, who, directed by their rival, the Ballala of Panja, lay in ambush on the road, they saw a bunch of stone-berries. Cennava took one of the berries and threw it up, and held his dagger directly under it, and passed the dagger through the berry. The berry as it fell was reduced to powder as fine as red turmeric. The people saw this wonderful feat, and said " If the younger brother can show so much of dexterity, how much more will the elder brother be able to show? All our ability and skill would be as nothing in comparison to theirs. If we obev our master's order, half of us shall lose our lives". Thus spoke the Bakuders of the plain, the Koragars, and the Mogers, who took to their heels. When the Mogers, however, who carried bows, and who "held each a blade of grass in his hand", fell prostrate before the brothers, crying for protection, the heroes pardoned them. The brothers "poured water on the hands of the suppliants, saying—'Be you our bond-slaves," and the brothers blessed them by touching their hands with the points of their daggers and gave them some rupees.2

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 89. 2. Ibid, p. 41, op. cit.

6. AMUSEMENTS

The Tulu people were fond of manly games. Among the various games mentioned in the Tulu Pāḍadānas, the following deserve some special notice: cockfighting, buffalo-racing, the game of cashew nuts, palle berries, cocoanuts, and yettu.

The game of letting cocks fight against one another seems to have been an ancient pastime of the Tuluvas.¹ "Duggaṇṇa Kāver of Ekkār and Timmaṇṇatikāri of Tibēra were noted for their skill in cock-fighting and their knowledge of bullocks. In the month of Bēse, following that of Paggu, they passed the village called Ekkaraparāra, taking with them two hundred and thirty spurs, four or eight cocks, and about thirty or fifty men." How Dēre Baidya went to the field where this game was held has already been seen. In Tulu the game is called kōrikaṭṭuni and kōrida-jūju.

We have seen, too, the game of cashew nuts mentioned in an earlier page. Kōṭi and Cennaya, then little boys, on seeing the children of Buddyanta playing with cashew nuts, went, according to one version of the story, to their uncle Sāyana Baidya and begged him to give them cashew nuts, and to teach them the rules of the game. It was after receiving cashew nuts from their uncle that they went to the play ground and completely defeated Buddyanta's children. Here, as we have already narrated, began

^{1.} Read Saletore, QJMS. XVII, pp. 316-327.

^{2.} I. A. XXIII, p. 91.

the great quarrel between the Bunt children and the Billavar lads.

A game equally famous as the one mentioned above was the buffalo race. How the enmity that began with the cashew nuts developed in the kambala field has been already dwelt upon. The kambala as (the field where) the buffalo-race is held is known in Tuluva, witnesses even today a great concourse of people. The most remarkable kambala in Tuluva is that which is held at Ondar in the Kundapuru taluka, and the next most famous is the arasu kambala (the king's buffalo race) at Padapanambūru, near Mūlki. The essential idea underlying a kambala is the thorough ploughing of the paddy fields once a year. buffaloes that are driven in the race are not generally used for agricultural purposes. They are carefully reared, and on the day of the race brought to the field, decorated with silver trappings, amidst great pomp. To each of the buffaloes let in the field, is tied a plank called muttuna palāyi nearly four feet in length, in the centre of which is a small circular piece of wood, upon which the man who drives the buffalo takes his stand. This circular piece of plank has got a small hole bored in it, and as the animal careers, the water underneath rushes up to the sky in the shape of a delightful fountain. That buffalo, or pair of buffaloes, which while running is able to send the water to the highest level, that is marked by a plantain bunch or leaves suspended above, is thought to have won the race.

There is method and etiquette on the kambaļa field. In the arasukambaļa of Paḍapaṇambūru, for instance, the following is the order of the buffaloes that are to come to the field:—First those of the arasu or king, next those of the Aikaļabāvadakuļu, followed by those of the Sīmantūrubāvadakuļu, Piliyoṭṭu Parāri, Putrabāva, or Arasubaṇṭe, Pañjita guttu, Kubēra guttu, Bilikuñja guttu, Tarapāḍi guttu, Attūra guttu, Kolnāḍu guttu, Kolkaḍu guttu, and nearly forty other guttus of minor importance, too numerous to be mentioned here.¹

In the Pāḍadānas we have some account of the kambala. Kōṭi and Cennaya had just finished cultivating their yenela crop. Meanwhile to choose a day for celebrating the kambala in his field, Buddyanta was going to ask the opinion of Maṭṭi Bīra Balaya. "Tuesday was found to be an auspicious day". The heroes too wanted to celebrate their kambala. But out of spite, Buddyanta gave out that the astrologer had named Tuesday as the day for Buddyanta and the next day for the two brothers to sow seeds and begin ploughing. Hearing this Kōṭi addressed his younger brother thus—"You go to the lower parts, and I will go to the upper parts, in order to get the he-buffaloes and coolies. He who owns four he-buffaloes should send two to us, and two should he send to Buddyanta;

^{1.} Gutta or Guttu here means a household, but the original meaning seems to have been a farming contract or lease. Read, Saletore, S. P. Life, I, pp. 210, seq.

and he who owns two only, may, if he pleases, send them to us, or he may send them to Buddyanta".1

The sowing of seeds and the planting of a plantain tree in the field were the next two important items in their programme. "Then they (i. e., the brothers) caused the buffaloes to be washed and boiled rice to be served to them. They also caused fodder to be served to those who were willing to eat it, and supplied tender cocoanuts to those who would not take fodder. To the coolies they said—"Go home in enjoyment". Then they brought some seed in baskets to their fields for sowing them; while Buddyanta had his seed carried to his fields in a palanquin. The two brothers then planted a plantain tree in their fields and sowed them and returned home". This description holds good of a kambala in Tuluva even today.

Another well known game in which Kōṭi and Cennaya excelled was that of the palle berries (or the large beans of entada monastachya). They asked their uncle how they could play that game without the necessary requisites, and then Sāyana told them thus—"O my children! You know how to play but you do not know the toys. Go to the bank of a river, and get round and heavy stones. Go to the bushes and get some palle berries; a basket full of them. Go to the thorny shrubs, and get some kaniñja berries. Go to the prickly shrubs for kadeñjekai berries. Go to the reeds,

^{1. &}amp; 2. I. A. XXIII, 33.

and get some bundles of their canes. Go to the bellmetal smith and get some small bell of bell-metal. Go to the blacksmith, and get a shield for your dagger called Rama kengude." "They all got the toys in three days, which ordinarily required about twelve days to make ".1

Flat stones were in constant demand for the games in ancient Tuluva. There was, for example, the game of stones and cashew nuts called together by the name yettu which has been thus described by Burnell:-A small circle is described on the ground and cashew nuts are put down by the boys, each putting down a certain number. The players strike at the nuts from a certain distance with a flat piece of stone. When a player succeeds in driving the nuts out of the circle he wins them. If one fails to hit the nuts, the next boy strikes, and if he hits, he is allowed to strike till he fails in hitting one. Every player has the right of striking at the nuts till he fails in hitting. So one by one strikes at them, and when all are driven out and the circle is cleared, the players put down the nuts again. The nuts which are placed within the circle are called pieci, and the flat piece of stone is called palle.²

Another purely indigenous game was called the palli and kuțți. It is referred to in the Pādadāna on Kodadabbu.3 The youth Kodadabbu is said to have been

I. A. XXIV, p. 143.
 Ibid, XXV, p. 309, n (38).
 This long and interesting Pādadāna has not yet been published. One version of it is with me. It is a Pādadāna of the Holeyas. B. A. S.

a master of the game. It may be described as a game played with two wooden sticks, one about two or three feet long, another five inches in length, in which the smaller is hit with the bigger; and the winner is said to be he who is able, on striking successfully, to send the smaller one to the greatest distance on the ground.

The game called candagidi, or merely gidi (hawk), is referred to in the Pādadāna called Kōti Cennaya. The heroes Kōti and Cennaya finding a man called Candagidi, a friend of their inveterate enemy the Ballāla of Pañja, hiding himself behind a wall, taunted him thus: "How many kinds of eagles are there?", said Cennaya. "There is the red eagle, the black eagle, and the yellow eagle", said Kōti. Then they asked him to show them the way to Kemēr Ballāļa of Pañjā.

The above were some of the favourite games of the ordinary people. The chieftains, however, took a keen delight in more martial pursuits. Boar-hunting was a pastime which found particular favour with the Ballālas of Tuluva. The eastern parts of Tuluva, where some of the prominent principalities like Pañjā, Edambūru, and Parimale were situated, served as the best hunting grounds in the district. Hunting as a royal excursion has been eulogized in the Pāḍadānas. Even in the folksongs of such a people like the Pombadas, who never seem to have occupied a status like that of the Billavars or the Bunts, hunting is mentioned with admiration. Thus do the Pombadas sing during their marriage cere-

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 420.

mony: "That Yekkana Sāle, who has built a two-storeyed palace known as the palace of seats, gave orders for going on a hunting party. The Mallāḍikāra, who has the charge of dogs, will go for hunting. They say that we should go to the forest called Mannapaikudi or Hill of Mud, a forest as yet never entered by man for hunting. They say that we should go to those depths for spreading our nets, where never before man fished. They have made a way for the hunting party to go. Yekkana Sāle is the man who does all this."

The status of a Ballala's establishment depended, among other things, on the number of hunting dogs he maintained, and the hunters he had under him. When Kōti and Cennaya reached the territory of Edambūru, they found the land covered with forests. "We had only heard up to this time that the Ballala of Edamburu was a very poor king; and that his kingdom was in a very bad condition. Now, we actually see it. In this country, there is no practice of hunting. There are no great festivals, nor the sport of driving he-buffaloes in The food that we eat is like an anchor in the fields our hearts, suspended by the chain of the water that we drink. Our clothes do not become dirty and our dagger gets rusty," so spake the brothers to one another.2

Meanwhile the Ballala of Edamburu had sent spies to see what his new guests were saying about him.

^{1.} Saletore, I. A. LVII, pp. 21-21.

^{2.} Ibid, XXIII, p. 48.

A. K. 33

When he found that they held him in utter contempt for having kept his land in a state of decadence, he at once "caused letters to be written to those who lived in remote countries; and to the people of the town, he caused a proclamation to be made by the beat of a bell-metal drum, that there should assemble in the town every male who had a tuft of hair on his head; every one of the tribe called Kolkars with a stick in his hand; every hunter having a pistol; the bowmen of the tribe called Mugers; two hundred men of Eḍambūru and three hundred of Koḍapāḍi. Accordingly all the people assembled. The two brothers living in Ekkaḍka Erryangaḍa were then sent for. When they came into the Ballāļa's verandah, the Ballāļa ordered them to accompany him to a hunt".1

But they wanted hunting dogs which could be secured only on the Ghats. So "it was necessary to write a letter to one Kanda Bulēri, living in a spot called Karmisāle in the town of Ijjya on the Ghats", to bring with him twenty or twenty-four dogs, including twelve of those always kept bound. The messenger was one Bagga. And the hunter, whose popular designation was Mallōdigāre (Mallādikāra) hurried at once to the low country of Tuluva, with four splendid dogs called Kāļu (that was served with a rice of a black sort), Tandu (that was given broken rice and bran), Bollu (that received green rice) and Kāgu (that ate a coarse kind of

^{1 &}amp; 2. I. A., XXIII, p. 85.

rice). And with the dogs and the hunters by his side, the Ballala of Edmburu went on a hunting expedition.

"The people of the whole town went to the chase, and the Ballala's son-in-law Rukku Ballala rode on a white horse. After meditating for some time what forest they should enter, they at last surrounded the forest called Sanka in the east. They threw stones on the bushes and held the dogs in the slips. entered the forests, but although they hunted a long time, they were not able to find either deer or wild hog. They then resolved to enter the forest overgrown with the plants called simulla. They surrounded it, as they had done the first, threw stones on the bushes, and held the dogs in the slips. The deer, the hare, and the wild hog did not come out of the bushes. Thus the chase proved quite useless. Now they resolved to hunt from the place called Anekallavu to Tuppekallavu, and surrounded the latter place. All the most prominent places were occupied by the best hunters. They threw stones on the bushes, and in a pit as deep as the height of man they found the king of pigs, a little smaller than an elephant and bigger than a horse. It suddenly sprang out of the pit and grunted aloud and went straight to where Kōti Baidya was standing. Its grunt, when its hair was standing on end, was like the roar of thunder. Its tusks, when it ground them, shone as bright as lightening. Köti was now in a strait. He could not fly from the beast without bringing a stain upon his heroism, and he

could not fight with it without risking his life. In this strait he prayed to the $bh\bar{u}ta$ Brahmara of Kemmule, craving his help. He set an arrow to his bow, and discharged it with such great force that it entered the body of the mouth and came out from it through the anus. The cries of the beast were heard in the three worlds, and its groans resounded through the four worlds ".1"

A more proficient sportsman was the Ballala of Parimale, whose great hunt we shall describe when dealing with the household of a Tuluva chieftain. On receiving a pair of racing buffaloes as a present from Sāma Ālva, the Ballāla of Parimale thanked the Baidya, and then informed him that there would be a hunting party soon. With the Ballala of Parimale there was a definite time for hunting. "Oh, Sāma Āļva, in a few days, during the months of Kanya, I wish to go on a hunt." The Ballala of Parimale was a master of the game. Although he had a Mallo (i. e., a Malladikara) by his side, yet he himself led the hunting expedition. It was while chasing a beast that a thorn pierced his leg and that he fell senseless down. And this it was that had made him send for Dēyi Baidyedi, whose marriage had just then been celebrated with the aid of Sāma Ālva's roval master.

7. MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

Man to some extent performed the work of beasts of burden. The most popular vehicle carried on man's

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 86.

shoulders, as given in the Pāḍadānas, was a sort of a hammock called in Tulu mañcil. Kōṭi and Cennaya after having finished their toilet at the hands of the expert barber from the Ghats, "next got into a palanquin of the colour of parrots, and each of them tied to the waist a dagger like that of Rāma". They were on their way to the Ballāla's palace. The mañcil was carried by the Bōyis on their shoulders.

Ferry-owners were people of some consequence in early times. They were called kartus, and they controlled large villages and sometimes even a town. The Pāḍadāna of Jārantāya has the following—"One Tuesday at noon, the hero Jārantāya came to the Atrel ferry, riding on a white horse and holding a white umbrella. He ordered the ferryman, Kanya, to bring the ferry boat. The ferryman replied: "The boat does not belong to me. I am not to get my fare; the boat has been kept by one Bermane (Brāhmaṇa) Kōṭe Baler for crossing the river on Tuesdays and Sundays!" Thus did Jārantāya get into the boat in which he murdered the boatman.

It is evident, therefore, that the Tulu people had definite days for ferrying persons across rivers. The Pāḍadāna of Koḍadabbu confirms our surmise about the ferry-owners. When Kaccūru Māldi, the mother of Koḍadabbu, crossed a place called Baḍaberamuṇi, and

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 82.

^{2.} Ibid. p. 91.

visited god Maheśvara in Bārakūru, she came to the ferry of Bārakūru. Seeing no boats in the river, she cried—"Why is it you have not got boats tied in a pair and ready, O ye men!" When the boatmen heard these words, they sent for the captain of the boats called Tambu Marakala.

Kartus or ferry-owners are often mentioned in the Pādadāna of Kanapāditāya. A younger brother and an elder brother having had some difference of opinion with each other, at last thought of going to the kartu or ferry-owner of Mangalore. Riding on white horses and having white umbrellas over their heads, "they passed the barke of Panjipadi and ascended the hill called Addadanda. They came to a place named Sararsime in the village of Mogernad. They came to Payyayyi of Panemoger, and passed the pleasure garden in Bantavala. They passed a banyan tree on the bank of the river at Aindalpatta in the village of Ambadadi. They passed the spot Pilipanjar and Ulavattu in Tumbe. They passed the temple of Varadeśvara and the gudicāvadi at Mañjabidu. They passed the tank called Gujjarakedu (and) arrived at last at Mangalore." And the kartu (master) of Mangalore saw them and questioned them why they were travelling southwards. And the brothers said that they had quarrelled with one another, and that one of them was going to a country where his eyes could not see and his ears could not hear.2

^{1.} Kodadabhu, op. cit.

^{2.} I. A. XXIII, pp. 92-93.

The rivers had sometimes bridges of ropes built over them. On their way to Edambūru, Kōṭi and Cennaya led by Cennaya of Edambūru, approached the guḍi of the bhūta Brahmara. The very name of the bhūta caused terror in the heart of Cennaya of Edambūru who, imagining the heroes to be as great cowards as himself, warned them not to proceed further but to sit under a trunkless śānti tree. "They crossed a bridge of ropes and reached the place and came to the yard of the guḍi" of the bhūta Brahmara.¹

These bhūtas protected the people against thieves. It is interesting to observe that the mention of robbers occurs only once or twice in the Pādadānas. This is how the bhūta Pilicāmundi was introduced in the village of Tumbe. "A man named Manju Panja jobtained a piece of land called Tumbejalajanana, and cultivated one crop on it. Depredations committed by thieves became very great, till not even a single tender cocoanut remained on the cocoanut trees. The paddy stored in the yards did not remain and there was no paddy in the rice-fields. Manju Panja told his eldest daughter that he would introduce a bhūta that would be able to put all the thieves to death, and that he would go to the kingdom of Baloli." He thence went to the kingdom of Bāloļi, and requested the Ballāļa to come to his aid. "What bhuta shall I give you?" said the Ballala. "There is the bhūta Pilicāmundi worshipped by you.

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 47.

Give him to me", said Mañju Pañja, and he give three hundred pagodas to the treasury of the Ballaļa.

But nowhere else in the Pādadānas did the tenants of the Ballalas buy a bhuta at such a high price. For, as will be narrated hereafter, the Ballalas of Tuluva were capable of maintaining peace in the land. This is best seen in the story of the wanderings of Karlutti. She, as we have seen, desired to meet her brother, the famous architect, once again after a long absence. While the brother was working at Yenuru (Venuru), his sister. who thought that he was away on the Ghats, said to herself at Kallata Mārnād, her native place—"Twelve years have passed since my brother went away, and since then I have not seen my brother with my eyes, and I have not heard of my brother with my ears. My arms ache for want of clasping him. My eyes are weak from not seeing him. I will go and search for my brother. I will find him wherever he may be."2

Then taking with her some food for herself as well as for her brother, "She started and met with a good omen. She passed by a water course at Atka (Aḍka) and went to Bēlūr. When the people of Bēlūr told her that her brother had gone to Belgoļa, she went to Belgoļa, where again she was informed that he was away at Yernāḍ. She went there and then again she was told that Kalkuḍa was in the Nāḍ. From Nāḍ she went to Nagar and thence to Kollūru and Peddūra, and on to

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 95.

^{2.} Ibid, XXV, p. 224.

Kārkaļa through Ubār (Uppinangadi), until she arrived at Yēṇūru." It was a long distance, indeed, which the determinate daughter of Sambu Kalkuda traversed to find out the whereabouts of her brother, the celebrated architect of Tuluva. And in the course of her wanderings, especially within the limits of Tuluva, no robber waylaid her and no shop-keeper cheated her.

One of the reasons why there was security on the public roads in early times in Tuluva was due to the fact that roads were studded with rest-houses in which kindhearted men were stationed. The Brahman, for example, who gave Kōti and Cennaya food and drink, as we have already seen, was one of such rest-house keepers. These rest-houses were called katte in Tuluva. ordinary kattes were different from dharma-kattes. infer this from the conversation that took place between the Brahman and the two brothers. The latter found that he had three kinds of drinking cups—one for giving water to aristocats and princes, another, a smaller one, for Brahmans, and third one of bell-metal for people of all castes. They remonstrated that they would not drink from a cup which had been handled by a thousand people. They then asked him to pour water on the dagger's point. But when the Brahman saw the shining steel, his knees gave way under him and he fell down senseless. "Kōti asked of the people-' Is this water put here by yourselves or by the permis-

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p. 225.

^{2.} I. A. XXIV, p. 152.

sion of the king'?" Kōṭi himself was not sure whether it was a dharma-kaṭṭe or one owned by a private person, although before they had approached the rest-house, he had spoken to his younger brother thus—"See here, brother, there is the spot named dharma-kaṭṭe. If you look towards it, you can see it, and your call can be heard there. A poor Brahman keeps holy water here."

The story of Kodadabbu furnishes us with an example of an ordinary katte. "With Kodange Bannare in front, Babbu walked on the road that led to the house of the Mangalore Ullaya, Buddyanta. And they neared the Manjananda-katte." It was evidently a rest-house that was maintained by a person called Manjananda.

The beasts of burden of early times which figure in the Pāḍadānas are the elephant, the horse, the ox, and the camel. With the Ballāļas and person of high rank, the elephants were common. Aḍūru Baidya on his way from Kāpi (Kāpu) to Purāl, "passed the aśvattha tree to which they tie elephants", and "the little banyan tree to which they tie horses". In the story of the bhūta Mūḍader (Kāļabhairava), the bhūta is represented to have "descended from the temple of Somanātha (Someśvara) and passed by nine tanks, and then he came to a palace at Ullāļa. Here he saw one Canta who had two riding elephants to ride." The Ballāļa of Eḍambūru sent a man to the two brothers with these words:—"If you defeat in battle an elephant, a horse,

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 40.

^{3.} I. A. XXIII, p. 19.

^{2.} Kodadabbu, op. cit.

^{4.} Ibid, XXIII, p. 189.

and an army, too, I shall give you a mura of rice." The heroes in the court of Edambūru, therefore, had to fight against elephants. "They went to the Ballāļa and saluted him. Five hundred elephants were loosed to fight with the heroes of Edambūru." "If you come with justice, I will show you the road to my heart, but if you come with injustice I will cut you to pieces like bees", said Cennaya. A troop of horses was brought out to them but Cennaya mounted on a horse and killed it by pressing it so that it vomitted up its food.

In the above description we have just seen how horses were tied to banyan trees. Bīra Kalkuda, being called a bastard, determined to find out who and where his father was. So "he started from his house and passed by a water-course, a high hill, a Brahman (?) tree, where an elephant was tied, a small banyan tree, santandadka, a stream, Kokkada, and Nīreñki, and come to a cool platform round a saroli tree". Meanwhile his father after having finished the great work entrusted to him by the king of Belgola, returned home laden with presents, and the father and son met near the saroli tree. "His father being much tired sat with his rewards to take rest on the platform and there the boy tied up his horse."

In addition to the horse there was the camel in Tuluva. The very fact of a camel having been used

^{1.} I. A. XXIV, p. 267.

^{2.} Ibid, XXV p. 222.

in Tuluva shows that the people had some sort of an overseas trade with those who reared this animal. How the Parimale Ballala presented Sama Alva with a camel to carry the heavy load of liquor home, we have already mentioned in an earlier context.

8. SOURCES OF REVENUE

And now it remains to be seen why the Ballala of Parimale gave his privileged toddy-drawer such a valuable present. When Sama Alva had finished celebrating the marriage of his nephew with Devi Baidvedi, the Ballala of Parimale said that he intended to give him (Sāma Ālva) a present after the marriage of his nephew. "Sāma Ālva said—'O Sir, everything we enjoy is on account of your bounty. Then why should you give us a present?'. At this the Ballala said—' As you are my friend, the palm-elimber of my forest, therefore, I ought to give you a good present'. At this, Sama Alva said—'The rice and the salt we eat is yours. What need is there that you should give us any present?' But the Ballala, not minding these words, called his accountant and told him to go and bring twelve pagodas. He brought and gave them to the Ballala, who called Sama Alva, and gave him the twelve pagodas. Sāma Ālva stretched forth his hands, bowed his head, and took the pagodas, and thanked the Ballala for his present. The Ballala said to him-'O Sāma Aļva, you must take these twelve pagodas, and get a golden bangle prepared out of them, and

wear it upon your waist. This is my present to you. Next year I will give you besides a golden chain to put on your wrist'. He replied—'O Sir, by your kindness alone I am living comfortably'. At this the Ballāļa said—'You get me fifty pagodas every year for the toddy you draw out of the palm-trees of the forest of Parimale. If it were not for you, I would not get so much. There is none so bold as to go to the forest. A stupid fellow will not be able to supply your place. If my tenants are rich and able to pay, I shall not become poor.'"

Another important source of revenue was that derived from land. There were special fields that yielded State revenue. This is made out from the conversation that took place between the two brothers Kōṭi and Cennaya and the Ballāļa in the latter's manorial house. The two heroes after murdering Buddyanta, went, as we have already seen, to the cāvaḍi or hall of the Ballaļa of Eḍambūru in order to receive a gift from him. And they spoke thus to the Ballāļa:—"On the northern part of your house there is a paddy field producing three hundred muras of rice and sowing three seers (of paddy). Please give us that field." "The revenue of that field is for governmental taxes. Do not ask for it! Ask for another, children," said the Ballāļa. "There is a paddy field to the south of the būdu

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p.-303.

^{2.} Cāvadi is also the name given to a verandah in front of a house. B. A. S.

producing five hundred muras of rice, and sowing five seers of paddy. Please, give us that one," said they. "The produce of that field is to be used for the servants of my house. Therefore, heroes, ask for another present", said he. Evidently there were crown lands in Tuluva.

A third source of revenue was from toll-gates. A continual mention of toll-gates with a description of articles taxed, makes us believe that there must have been definite octroi boundaries in the principalities of the Tuluva Ballalas. Kōti and Cennaya, after having killed the ploughwright and the washerman, both of whom had been impertinent to them, marched along the road chewing betelnut. was a toll-gate on the way, and as they approached, the toll-man Dere saw them coming and asked them who they were. They said that they were travellers. 'Look! there is the toll-gate. Pay me the toll before going away', said the toll-man. 'Toll! What is it on? Do we carry any packs on our heads? Do you see any loads on our backs? Is it on any cattle that we have brought with us? Have we brought a whole family with us?" said the brothers. To this the toll-man Dere answered—" The toll on the dagger, five feet long, that you carry with you amounts to a cash. Pay that to me and go away."2 Hence.

^{1.} I. A. XXIV, p. 150. The Ballāļa of Edambūru given in this version is evidently an error for the Ballāļa of Parimaļe. According to one version of the story it was the uncle of the heroes, Sāma Baidya, who advised them to go to the Ballāļa. B. A. S.

^{2.} I. A. XXIII, p. 39.

loads carried on head and on the back, cattle, and a whole family were taxed on the boundary limits. In another version of the same story, it is clearly stated thus—"Do men or women follow us, Dēre?" And Dēre's answer to the heroes reveals the fact that arms too were taxed by the Ballāļa's Government.

The Ballala derived revenue also from his great gardens. Large plantations of arecanut, plantain cocoanut, or palm trees covering some times five or six acres of land are called tota. And the wealth of a landlord was measured not so much in terms of cash money which the tenants paid annually but in the rice muras and the vield from these gardens. The Ballala of Mardal feeling the necessity, as we have seen already, of building a sthana for the bhuta Panjurli, thought of giving his idea a concrete shape. And with the aid of the Brahman astrologer, he fixed "the eleventh of the next month" as the most auspicious day for building the sthana. "Tomorrow I will go and bring all the things required for the purpose," said he. Early next morning he got up and went to the gardens of the Kunbis and going from house to house, he got from thence plantain leaves and bunches of plantains, and the tender rinds of plantain trees, and red and white pumpkins, and vegetables of various kinds, and caused them to be carried by servants and sent them to his house. And then he went to his garden and called the

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 152.

pūjāri and told him—" Oh Pūjāri, go and get a hundred ripe cocoanuts from the cocoanut trees."

The servants of the Ballāla's Government were strict and impartial. Kōti and Cennaya met the toll-gate keeper Dēre whom they thus accosted:— "Never has any man set so low a price on our dagger, and now he has been born." To this the toll-gate keeper Dēre answered:—"Is it wonderful that you should be asked to pay the toll? If the son of a Banta should pass this way, he would pay toll on the slippers of his feet. Should the Setti's son Sēnaya pass, he would pay toll on the white umbrella in his hand. If the son of a king should pass this way he would pay toll on his palanquin." The honest Dēre paid dearly with his life for his impartiality, but for once the twin heroes had met with a man who set duty above all other considerations.

Among the servants of the Ballāļa who, as we shall presently see, maintained his authority with a judicious use of presents and punishments, the pujāri or priest and the accountant have already appeared. Likewise have we come across the Brahman who was in charge of the dharma-kaṭṭe. Besides these there were other village dignitaries—the ploughwright, the washerman, the oil-maker, and the bell-metal smith. According to one version of the Pāḍadāna on Kōṭi Cennaya, Edambūru contained all these village servants. How

^{1.} I. A. XXVI, p. 67.

^{2.} Ibid, XXIII, p. 39.

the ploughwright Hinkiri Bāṇār, the washerman Bālu, and the oil-maker Sanku together with Dēre the toll-gate keeper suffered hardships at the hands of the twin heroes will not be repeated here. The town-crier and the master of the hounds were also looked upon as prominent persons attached to the manorial house of a Ballāļa. The town-crier made known the proclamations of the Ballāļa to the people by the beating of a bell-metal drum; and the latter was considered as a person without whom the Ballāļa never went on his hunting expeditions. And then there was the palmclimber whose importance we have already described. The Eḍambūru Ballāļa seems to have had spies, too, as is evident from the manner in which he compelled Kōṭi and Cennaya to submit to a trial of strength.

9. EDUCATION

To make the Mallādikāra come hurrying to the palace or the barber come post-haste from Erajha, the Ballāla had recourse to letter-writing which is thus described in the Pādadānas. It is in connection with the twin heroes Kōṭi and Cennaya, who had grown into fine striplings. On receiving a complaint from them that Kali was sitting on their faces, while the faces of their rivals, the children of Buddyanta shone, because of Lakṣmī, their father Sāyana Baidya, according to one version, went straight to the Ballāla of Parimale, and reported that it was high time to have them shaved.

^{1.} I. A. XXIV, p. 15.

A. K. 34

And the Ballala at once gave orders that the ceremony be performed in the same manner it was done in his own household. Forthwith the royal barber called Isara Kambli, living in the lands of one Kanda Bollaresvāmi, in a place called Karmisāle, in the city of Ijjyā on the Ghats, was sent for. And Nārayana Rangoji, the hereditary clerk of the Ballala's būdu, was ordered to write a letter at once to the barber. And "Savana Baidya then sent a servant to a place called Uddandabottu, and caused some raw leaves of a young palmtree to be brought and to be exposed to the morning sun. In the evening he caused the leaves to be taken out of the sun, and had them tied up in bundles. He had the middle parts only of the leaves preserved, their ends he had cut off. The clerk held one of those trimmed leaves in his hand and it bent; so he caused oil and turmeric to be put on it. Then he asked Sāyana Baidya what he should write on it."1

Writing is also mentioned in the Pāḍadāna on Koḍadabbu. When the Uḷḷaya Buddyanta of Mangaļūru desirous of finding out a spring in the well called Kañcinaḍka, which he had caused to be dug in the fort at Bārakūru, wanted to find out a person who could divine the nature of springs, he went to his Brahman adviser who told him that he could get aid only from a Pariah boy called Babbu, who lived with Koḍanga Bannāre in the village Uppūru. "Then he took a palmyra leaf and wrote a letter. And he sent post-haste

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, pp. 30-31.

a Pariah messenger with the letter to the Yerejōgu of Koḍanga Bannāre." In the same Pāḍadāna on Koḍadabbu we have the length of the palmyra leaf. On receiving the letter from Buddyanta of Mangaļūru, Koḍanga Bannāre gave to the Pariah messenger, who had thus brought him a letter, "milk in a cup and water in a cambu". He then "read the palmyra leaf which was a gēṇa in length, and he read it to the length of a māru".

Instruction in reading and writing was received in schools called in Tulu garadi. The best example of a garadi is that given in the Pādadāna on Kōti Cennaya. It is called the garadi of Peru Perumunde. Kōti and Cennaya were directed to the house of Candagidi, the school master who owned the garadi, by Palli Bannaya. They approached Sandagidi's (i. e., Candagidi's) house and called him loudly by name. "When they called him, he was not there but his wife answered the call. 'Do you know, girl, where he has gone?" asked they. 'He went to a garadi at Peru Perumunde to teach boys to write and play,' said she". "We shall have to see more about this school presently.

Writing was in the primary stages taught on sand. This is how the seven children of Murave Byāri and Fātima learnt the art of writing. "They brought many a handful of fine sand from the sea-shore and put it on

^{1.} Kodadabbu, op. cit.

^{2.} A $g\bar{e}na = a$ span from the tip of the thumb to that of the little finger; a $m\bar{a}ru = a$ space to which a man can extend his arms. Kodadabbu, op. cit.

^{3.} I. A. XXIV, p. 214.

the western verandah. They wrote on sand, and learnt writing on it. They got planks. They brought short leaves of the palm-tree from Uddandabottu, put them in the sun when it was low in the east and heaped them up in the evening when the sun was dark. Next day they cut off both ends of the leaves and bound the middle parts into books. They had five handfuls of leaves, and three of written books. They clearly read the writing on the leaves and only murmured books. Their writing on sand, planks, and leaves was done well."

That the Tuluvas knew writing in the days of Kōṭi and Cennaya there can be no doubt. This is proved by the reference made in their Pāḍadāna to a stone inscription. When Cennaya and his brother had levelled the palace of the Ballāla of Pañja to the ground, they caused the Ballāla to be brought before them, and after showering a volley of abuse on him, ended their speech thus:—"Seven feet of land in the village of Pañja we shall annex to Eḍambūru." Having thus severely reproached the Ballāla, they told him that they would leave the village. On one side was Pañja. and on the other was Eḍambūru, and between them was a śilāstone, serving as a boundary-mark. They saw the stone, and it was covered with writing. "Look here, brother, see this writing on this stone," said the

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p. 239. The name given to the iron pencil which was used for writing is kantāvs. No mention is made in the Pādadānas of kadata or cloth manufactured out of the charcoal and gum, on which accounts were written in later days. B.A.S.

younger brother. "My qualifications are only that I was born before you and that I have grown up speedily, but writing, wit, and wisdom are all your part," said Kōṭi. Then the younger brother knelt down. Was it to dig the stone? Or was it to read the writing on it? He read the writing and said to his brother thus—"O my brother! In former times, Eḍambūru was very powerful and Pañja paid tribute to Eḍambūru. Now Pañja has become powerful and Eḍambūru pays tribute to Pañja. Seven feet of the land of the village of Eḍambūru have been annexed to Pañja. Therefore it is now necessary to change the place of this stone." Having said this, he dug up the stone, and moved it seven feet back, and thus annexed seven feet of land to Edambūru.

There is reference to sewing in the Pāḍadānas. Cennaya of Eḍambūru led the heroes to the palace of the Ballāļa of Eḍambūru. And while they were passing through the famous forest of Kemmuļe, their guide spoke to them thus:—"He (the Ballāļa of Eḍambūru) has ordered me to take you to him. I can do it; but look here, my heroes! We shall have to go through the forest of Kemmuļe. If you see anything in that forest do not say to any one that you have seen it. If you hear anything, do not say that you have heard it. If a pregnant cow goes into the forest, it brings forth a dead calf. If a pregnant woman goes there she miscarries. If a bird able to fly goes there, its wings are

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 46.

torn. If a creeping ant goes there, it can creep no more. Therefore, oh you heroes, you should follow me as a child follows its mother, as chickens follow the hen, and as the thread follows the needle."

The description of the ship which the enterprising children of Murave Byāri of Sulikal built proves again that the Tuļu people knew how to tack the sails and construct an awning. Silken flags are continually mentioned in the Pāḍadānas. When Kocāļva Ballāļa of Nandārabeṭṭu wanted to be a patron of the bhūta Ambadāḍi Pañjurļi, he spoke to it thus—"To a bhūta, that desires to come to me, I will not say nay. If you will cast aside your present form, and come to me, I will have a woollen couch prepared for you, and cause a silken flag to be raised. I will offer to you a pig made of bell-metal."²

The names of some musical instruments are given in the Pāḍadānas. When their uncle had got ready for Kōṭi and Cennaya a coat and a pair of trousers each, he had a horn (kombu) blown in their honour. The two heroes on reaching the house of their brother-in-law, Payya Baidya of Paḷḷi, asked him who the two most intimate friends of Kemēr Ballāḷa of Pañja were. And Payya answered in return that Cāmuṇḍa Bernāye and Candagiḍi Baidya were the most faithful friends of the Ballāḷa. Candagiḍi Baidya was the same person about whom we have already mentioned a few details. It was

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 46.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 94.

his wife who had replied to the two heroes that her husband had gone to a garadi at Peru Perumunde to teach the boys to write and play.

The following was what they witnessad in the garaqi. "In a small hut consecrated to the bhūta in the village Peru Perumunde, Candagiqi was teaching a number of boys to play dexterously on the flute. They went towards the place. Candagiqi saw them afar, ordered the sound of the flute to cease, and all men to be silent, and shut the door." On receiving no reply to their call, the heroes broke open the door and discovered Candagiqi hiding behind a pillar. "I have heard that you are teaching some boys to play on the flute. Teach my brother Cennaya," said Koţi. "I will teach him. The new comer shall be the pupil and he who was here before shall be the master", said Candagiqi. Then they played on the flute.

In addition to the horn and the flute, there was the pañcavādya. In the Pādadāna on Kodadabbu mention is made of the pañcavādya. The mother of Kodadabbu, Kaccūru Māldi, travelled on and on till she reached the limits of Bārakūru. "She came to the temple of Maheśvara in Barakūru. There was the usual music (vādya) accompanied by the pañcavādya and the horn called the sannata and the fire-works called sakananda". The five kinds of musical instruments were the follow-

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 44.

^{2.} Kodadabbu, op. cit.

ing—the lute, the cymbals, the drum, the trumpet, and a kind of hautboy.¹

10. RELIGION

The Padadanas do not inform us when the great religions were introduced into Tuluva. But one significant fact revealed in the folk-songs is that most of the bhutas descended from the Ghats. This is how the story of Panjurli begins-"A sow gave birth to a twin brother and sister. 'Now we must descend the Ghats! What god shall we serve? If we serve the god Sidalinga in the south, he will probably accept our services, but his male attendants will not allow that. If we should offer to serve the god Mahalingesvara in the north, he may probably accept our services, but his male attendants will not let us serve him. Now there is the god Jimmappa in the east, mightier than all the gods and the bhūtas. He is remarkably powerful, but his male attendants will interfere. There is the god Subrava on the Ghats. He will permit us to serve him, but his male attendants will not allow that'". So spake Panji Gujjare, king of the pigs, and Panji Kali, queen of the pigs.2 In the Pādadāna on the acts of Kanapāditāya, the bhūta is represented as having "descended into the Tulu country

^{1.} Mānner, Tuļu-English Dicty., p. 376. The pañcavādya of Tuļuva is evidently the same as the pañca-mahā-vādya mentioned in Kannada inscriptions. B. A. S.

^{2.} I. A. XXIII, p. 21.

from the Ghats".1 Likewise the story of the bhuta called Mundipāditāya known in Kāśi as Kālabhairava, and Vaidyanātha, speaks of the bhūta as having descended into the Tulu country from the Ghats.2 King Dharma after finishing his toilet at the hands of the barber Binnadi Kāra, said "that he wanted to descend to the Tulu country and see the Tulu people".3 was this Dharma who later on became known the bhūta Todakinār. The same wish was expressed by the two boys born in the palace at Nagaloka and Devaloka, who afterwards became known as Attavara Doyyongulu.4

The Tuluvas were aware of more humane agencies. The reference to god Subrahmanya on the Ghats, as we have just seen, is to a Brahman centre. And the mention of the gods Iśvara, Nārāvana, and Brahmā bespeaks a knowledge of the Hindu religion. A Pādadāna begins thus:-"In the beginning when god Nārayāņa created the earth. Isvara sat on his right and Brahma on his left."5 We have already seen how in the question which the two brothers. Kōti and Cennava, put to their guide Cennaya of Edambūru about the structure which lay head of them, they showed a knowledge of the temples of the Hindus and of the Jainas, and of a mosque of the Māpillas.6

I. A. XXIII, p. 92.
 Ibid, p. 94.

^{3.} Ibid, p. 98.

Ibid, p. 192.
 Ibid, p. 15. This Pāḍadāna has no title.
 Ibid, p. 47, op. cit.

The Ballālas seem to have naturally been influenced by Hindu customs. The spies sent by the Edambūru Ballāla to find out what the two brothers were doing, reported that Kōṭi and Cennaya were speaking very contemptuously of his government, and that, among other things, they suggested that all "the śrāddhas of your ancestors, which have remained unperformed should now be performed."

The Tuluvas believed indeed in God and in Heaven, although the spirits of the dead heroes made up their lower hierarchy. When the great battle was ended, and Kōṭi lay wounded, the Ballāla of Eḍambūru, whom the hero had saved from utter ruin, met the heroes with these words—"O great hero! You are he that saved the whole of my kingdom!" 'It is well,' said Kōṭi, 'but, my lord, pour some water into my throat that I may go to heaven. I will leave this body and go to Kailāsa'".2

The only specific reference to serpent worship is in the Pāḍadāna on Koḍadabbu. Bāle Kaccūru Māldi, the mother of Koḍadabbu, was born in Kōṭeśvara in the Kundāpūru tāluka. "Once she said that she wanted to go from Kōṭeśvara (to Bārakūru). Having said that with a naḍupadi nāga and a kaḍupoti berma in her hands, and with a mūli of mud and a mūli of bronze and a nāgadarbe stick, she came to the south". Kaccūru Māldi was known for the many charms she could perform.

^{1.} I.C. XXIII, p. 49.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 90.

^{3.} Kodadabbu, op. cit.

In the Pādadānas the building of a sthāna, or as it is more popularly known a sāna, is always described as the work that required great pomp and trouble. To build a sthana the aid of a Brahman astrologer was necessary. How fervently the Ballala of Mardal prayed to the Brahman to come to his būdu in order to fix a day for the opening ceremony of a sthana, we have seen already in an earlier connection. The same Padadana tells us how much it cost a Ballala, over and above the price of building materials such as trees, stones, etc., to build a sthāna. The Ballāla of Mardāl after informing his nephew that he, according to the advice of the Brahman, was thinking of erecting a sthana for the new bhuta, continued thus—" Therefore I must begin the work of building the sthana next Friday. I must call the carpenters, and then begin the work. I cannot do well this without fifteen pagodas. I am, therefore, anxious not knowing what to do. What do you know of my anxiety?"1

Although the Ballāļa showed great anxiety in the matter of constructing a sthāna for the bhūta Pañjurļi, yet he soon collected all the materials required for a sthāna with the aid of his tenants and friends. The Ballāļa urged the Brahman to come to the būḍu and the latter consented saying—"Well, I will come. What can I do when you are so urgent? I cannot deny you. Therefore, I will come. And I will tell you what things are necessary on the day. Twelve seers of rice and twelve

^{1.} I. A. XXVI, p. 61.

bundles of betel-leaves, forty-eight betel-nuts, twelve bunches of the flowers of the areca-nut tree, forty-eight kinds of parasitic plants, a bundle of firewood of the jack-tree, ninety-six tender cocoanuts, ninety-six ripe cocoanuts, forty-eight grains of rice and forty-eight seers of baked rice, forty-eight seers of beaten rice, ninety-six seers of jaggery, twelve dried cocoanuts, one hundred plantain leaves, one hundred ripe plantains, twelve seers of ghī, forty-eight seers of oil, and three seers of butter; you must procure all these and then find out a good man to represent the bhūta. Let all these things be procured; and on that day send for me early in the next morning, and I will come to you. And what else can I do?" 1

That was not all. The sthāna had to be equipped. The Ballāla of Mardāl "got a cot prepared for Pañjurli bhūta and got a wooden railing on three sides of it, and got it painted. Then he sent iron to the blacksmith's shop and got a trident prepared with a chain and small jingling bells attached to the three points of it; and also a sword and goglets and stool and all other necessary ornaments prepared". It was when he had thus got ready all the required articles that he went to the house of the fortune-telling Brahman astrologer.

To the *bhūtas* who attended on the gods, the people performed an illumination that lasted for thirty days. "Thirty days in honour of the goddess Parameśvari of

^{1-2. ·} I. A. XXVI, pp. 61, 66

Purāla! Thirty days' play with bulls! Three days' fighting with cocks! Thirty days' play with areca-nuts, and gambling with cocoanuts! Thirty days' festival! Thirty days' illumination of the guḍi! The ceremony of raising Viṣṇu's flag and the figure of Garuḍa! Aḍūru Dēre Baidya intended to go!" Thus is related in the Pāḍadāna on Jūmādi.

The Tuluvas represented some bhūtas as destructive agents. In the Pāḍadāna on Pañjurli, the Ballāļa of Kukyāli named Karenke, after instructing the Pombada called Kāntu, who was to personate the bhūta, consoles him by saying that whereas he himself would be getting only a vow from the poor, the Pombada would get a feast and a sacrifice from the rich, and that, therefore, he would do well to be a bhūta. "If you go to a forest you will be called a pig, but be a bhūta, that is, the master of a thousand people. Iśvara has given you authority to kill a man, who was to have lived twelve years more, if he had not disregarded you! So great a bhūta you are!"

In Tuluva the man who personates a bhūta is a Pombada by caste. And the priest of a bhūtasthāna is generally a Baidyenāye (or a Billavar), the only exception being in Ekkār, near Mūlki, where the pūjāri is a Vokkēlme or a Buņt. That the Tuluvas distinguished evil spirits from bhūtas, can be made out from the description of the great forest deity of Kemmule,

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 19.

^{2.} Ibid, XXV, p. 274.

the bhūta Brahmara, who in the Pādadāna on Kōti Cennaya is thus pictured. The brothers had finished praying to the bhūta and "before the words had left their lips, Brahmara had granted their prayer. doors that had been shut opened, and the lamps that had been put out became lighted, and all their prayer was fully answered. They then prayed that the bhūta should descend from the seventh storey of the gudi, and come down to the third, and that he should hold a golden plate in his hands, and receive their offerings. Then Brahmara descended from the seventh storey to the third, riding on a white horse. Holding a silver umbrella, he wore a garland of white conch shells on his right shoulder, and on his left, a garland of black shells. He held discus on his head and his breast was covered with a square shield."1

But Kāntu Pombada who acted the part of Panjurļi may be taken to be the type of a Tuļuva devil-dancer, It was not enough to get painted, if, for example, a man wanted to imitate a Panjurļi, like a pig, or to sing the origin and prowess of a bhūta like a squirrel. There were many preliminaries to be got ready, there was the ceremony of getting possessed, and finally there was the dancing. And in no Pāḍadāna is the whole picture so faithfully depicted as in the story of Panjurļi in which the Ballāļa of Mardāļ, with the aid of the Brahman astrologer, had got everything in perfect trim, and was only awaiting the arrival of the Pombada priest.

^{1.} I. A., XXIII, p. 47.

To face p. 542



A Pombada Devil-dancer

Photo by M.S. R.]

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When the sun was about to set they "got the sthana cleansed. And the Bhatta lit a fire for a sacrifice with firewood from the jack-tree; and gave oblations of ghi, to the bhūta; and gave sacrifices according to a certain number. As the sacrifices were over, the sun set; then the devil-dancer also came. Then the Bhatta sitting before the fire took tender cocoanuts and ripe cocoanuts, and beaten-rice and baked-rice, and honey, and ghī, and butter, and curds, and milk, and prepared pañcāmrta, and then the Bhatta took the sandal stone and rubbed sandal wood upon it and prepared sandal. Then the Bhatta called the Ballala and told him-'Now take the devil-dancer yourself to the tank, and let him bathe there and come'. So saying he sent them; and before they returned he made everything ready in the sthana. And then they came and entered the sthana and stood before the sacrificial fire. Then the Bhatta said—'Now be not dilatory. Give the devil-dancer the flowers of the arecanut tree and some grains of rice; and let him stand in front of us. Give him the sword and the bell'.

"Having done so, all of them prayed—'O Lord! if you are Panjurli bhūta of a truth, let it become known to us in this way.' So saying all of them at once threw rice upon the devil-dancer. Then the music was played. Suddenly the devil-dancer began to tremble and cried out with a loud voice and ran round the sthāna and ran to the tank and bathed again, and came back and took the sword, and began to pierce his belly with

it. Then the Bāragas, who had come together in the sthāna, took away the sword from the hands of the devil-dancer, and prayed thus—'O Lord Pañjurli, if you are of truth, now you must open your mouth and speak to us. We have taken much pains to believe in you. Now you must be pleased with us and take the sacrifice which we offer, and order us and save us.'

"At this the Panjurli said O Ballala, I came down from the sky, yet I had no ladder to do it. Do you hear me? I am he that came down without a ladder. Great magicians tried for seven days and seven nights to catch me; and yet they could not catch me, but I am to come here. Now I must go about to the great towns and see renowned places and seek for a habitation. I am come to help the men of this world. Take courage. Do not be afraid. I am very much pleased with the sacrifice which you have offered. And yet you must henceforth give me two tambilas every year. If you fail in this, I will give you trouble. Then you must not complain of me. Now I am very glad that I have first drunk milk in your house. In future I will help you, so that no sickness or disease attack your children or your cattle. Now bring me food; the devil-dancer is getting very tired. I must not give (him) much trouble. Bring me all sorts of cakes and puddings and milk, and I will take my food.'

"At this the Ballala said—'O Baragas! Panjurli has spoken well. He is the demon of truth. Bring him the food that he has asked. Let him take it."

"All the Bāragas hearing these words, brought food to Pañjurli. Pañjurli when he was about to take the food, asked the Ballāļa—'O Ballāļa! How is the trišūla which you have got prepared for me? I wish to see it, bring it here before me!'

"Then they brought the trisūla to Pañjurļi bhūta and gave it to him. Then Pañjurli took the trisūla in one of his fingers, and said—'All of you see this; now, though the trisūla is so big, it is only so to you; but it is not so to me. To me this is a straw. It is not big in my eyes. And now I must see all the other ornaments which you have prepared for me!'

"At this, they brought the mask (ani) which they had prepared for Panjurli and gave it to nim. He saw the mask and was quite delighted with it, and putting it on his face, trembled and cried out in a loud voice, and said—'You see, the mask which you have prepared for me is very beautiful.'

"And again he said—'Now bring the goglets!' And so the goglets were brought. In this manner they did everything; and the *bhūta* enjoyed the feast, and having finished the dedication the assembly dispersed."

The good feeling that existed between the different communities is seen in the Pāḍadānas which mention how Muhammadans and Hindus lived harmoniously together. In the village of Uddara or Uddaļa, near Manjēśvara, a great devil-dancing ceremony

^{1.} I. A. XXVI, pp. 68-69. Contrast the barbarous account given by Lavie in Sturrock, S. C. Manual, I. p. 139. B. A. S.

A. K. 35

is held. It is of the bhūtas called the Doyyonguļu. When the ayana of the Doyyonguļu takes place every year, it is customary for the Pombada priests to go to the mosque of the Māpillas and to assure the latter of the sympathy and support of the Hindus. This is in memory of the success which had attended the arms of a Māpilla general during the mediaeval ages when he had prayed the Doyyongulu for help, and when, as we have already mentioned, he presented them with grants of land.¹

Another example of the amity that prevailed among the two communities is given in the Pāḍadāna of Bobbarye. In this we are told that the children of Murave Byāri determined to go on trading in a ship, as narrated in an earlier context. And with the money which they got by selling their she-buffalo, they collected some fishermen and Māpillas and went to Periyer Kaḍañjar. And when they neared the temple of Brahmā, the Byāris were brought to "a halt by the villagers." "If you are in your caste you may come into the temple yard and touch the door and then tell us what you want," said the villagers. It was a remarkable privilege, indeed, which the Māpillas received at the hands of their Hindu brethren.

11. CUSTOMS AND MANNERS

The difference that existed between the customs prevalent among the Brahmans and those which were

^{1.} Cf. Aygal, Doyyongolu, pp. 2-4. Supra, p. 464.

^{2.} I. A. XXV, pp. 239, seq.

common among the Billavars is given in the cruel case of the young maid of the Joti Brahman caste, who afterwards became known to Tuluva tradition as Dēyi Baidyedi. To the Baidva saviour who had with great respect come near her and promised to loosen her bonds, the poor girl related thus her sad story. "In that case I will tell you, hear me. If you ask me where I came from I came from Parimale. A Brahman maid is like an earthen pot. A copper pot may be touched by any one, but an earthen one must not be touched by outsiders. When a dog touches an earthen pot, it is thrown away. This is the custom among the Brahmans. If you ask my parents' names, I will not tell you. I am not married. I am a virgin maid. I am thirteen years of age. Nobody came to ask me in marriage. and as I reached puberty before marriage, they tied my hands and eyes and left me in the forest. If a girl obtains puberty before her marriage, they do not allow her to remain in the town but send her to the forest. This is the custom among the Brahmans ". The Billavar hearing this custom replied-"O maid! your custom is not among other castes. Is it a sin in a girl to attain puberty before marriage? In our caste we have no such custom. We always marry after a girl attains puberty. It is very rarely that we marry before that."

Then the girl continued-"There is another custom among the Brahmans. If a little girl, still a child, should lose her husband and becomes a widow, she is

not allowed to marry again. God has created different customs for different castes."

And the startled Baidya gave her the following reply-"These Brahmans are very hard-hearted men. They do not show any mercy to their offspring. It would be better for them to kill her (a child) at once than to bring her and leave her in the forest in this manner. No other castes are so hard-hearted as the Brahmans. It seems to me that this custom is not given to you by God, but instituted by men themselves. God will never ordain that they should sacrifice young women to tigers and bears, to be devoured by them."

Sāma Āļva, who said these words, showed how humane and wise the Billavars were by giving the forlorn girl in marriage to his own nephew Sāyana Baidya. He said to his sister, the mother of Sāyana Baidya, thus-" We must celebrate a marriage. We must not do everything according to our will. We must first tell the Ballāļa of Parimaļe. After informing him we must inform all the leaders of our caste. We must prepare all things necessary for the marriage. We must get half a korjī of rice prepared. We shall require oil, jaggery, cocoanuts, salt, tamarinds, coriander, and saffron, etc."

But the next question was that of fixing the day of marriage. This was the work of the devil-priests. After giving them betel-leaves and betel nuts to eat,

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p. 296.

^{2. ·}Ibid, p. 298.

and a mat to sit upon, Sāma Āļva requested them to help him as regards the celebration of the marriage. And "then the devil-priests consulted among themsleves, and said to Sāma Ālva 'You must have the marriage celebrated on the ninth day of the next month. It is an auspicious day! Sāma Āļva consented and said-'By that day I will have everything ready.' Then the priests asked him-'For what numbers of persons are you preparing the feast?' 'For eight hundred persons', replied he, and asked them-'Will that be enough?' They replied-'It is according to your ability. We will not constrain you.' So saying they dispersed and returned to their homes.''1

Sāma Āļva had in the meanwhile already got all the necessary articles ready. In this matter he had secured the aid of those persons who had come to his house to drink palm-juice. And they were the Bunts, and the Koragars, the Holeyas and the other low castes. "Sāma Āļva told the Holeyas to bring one mura of salt and told the Koragars to bring baskets, etc., prepared for him. When the fishermen came to his house to drink, he told them to supply him with enough fish for a marriage feast. And when the Bunts came to his house, he said to them-'O ye sons of Settis! There is to be a marriage in my house; you must do me a favour."

The permission of the Ballala had next to be secured. So the palm-climber hurried to his master's

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p. 300.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 298,

būdu. The following conversation between the Ballāļa and his privileged Baidya illustrates the cordial feelings that existed between a Tuluva master and his servant. "As I was starting to come here in order to tell you, said Sāma Ālva, your servant came to call me, and I have accompanied him." On this the Ballāla said—'O Sāma Ālva! Tell me what has happened in your house? Then Sāma Ālva began from the beginning and related to him the whole story, and the Ballāla of Parimale said to him—'You have no daughter. Therefore, God has given you this daughter. Marry her to your nephew'.

"To this he replied—'So think I and I do according to your help'. Then the Ballala said again—'Ask me whatever yo want. Do not be afraid.' Then he said---'Everything requires your help.' Then the Ballala said again—'Ask me whatever you want.' Then he said— 'Upto this day I have never once given a big feast. Therefore, this time I must give a feast to all my castemen in the town. If I do not, they will excommunicate me.' Then the Ballala asked him-'O Alva! Tell me how much you require?' He replied-'Sir, I shall require half a horji of rice. I want your help in this. This is the chief item.' Then the Ballala said—'O Sāma Ālva, why are you afraid? I will help you. I will give you whatever you require.' Then Sāma Ālva replied—'It is true that you will give me this now. But must not I return it afterwards? What shall I say of a feast which is to be given by contracting

debts? Many have come to poverty and sold their lands and homes by contracting debts during marriages. If one becomes poor, the rich look down upon him. The poor man is lighter than cotton.' At this the Ballāla said—'Do not talk too much, but go home and make everything ready. Whatever is wanting, I will supply.''' No doubt the Ballāla took a paternal interest in the welfare of his Baidya. But as Sāma Āļva's sister and nephew, and Sāma Āļva himself, remarked, custom required that they had to return back unto the Ballāla all that they had received from him. "It is true he will supply us now," said the nephew, "but we will have to return it to him afterwards. We are happy when we borrow, but it is very difficult to return what is borrowed afterwards."

When the devil-priests had fixed the day of the marriage, and the Ballāla had guaranteed support to Sāma Āļva, invitations were sent to the latter's relatives and caste people and friends. How the invitations were sent the Pāḍadānas unfortunately do not inform us. We are to suppose that they must have been conveyed by word of mouth. When once again the devil-priests questioned Sāma Āļva as to the number of persons he was going to invite to the marriage, he said—"One person from each house." And the persons thus invited were not to come to Sāma Āļva's house empty-handed. The devil-priests on hearing that he intended to invite one person from

^{1-2.} I. A. XXV, pp. 299, 300.

each house, said—"Yes, that is right. If you invite one person from each house, you will get a load from every house, and it will not be necessary for you to buy vegetables, etc." Invitations to a marriage in ancient Tuluva, therefore, carried deep obligations with them.

The relatives and friends, however, were not to come only with loads of vegetables. When Sama Alva had finished talking with the devil-priests, "in the evening, men, women, and children came to his house. The sister of Sama Alva received them, and spread mats for them, and made them sit down, and gave them betel-leaves and nuts, and thus showed them respect. Sama Alva's wife brought lamps and kept them in the rooms and lighted them. All the neighbours who came to the marriage helped them in preparing for the feast. Vegetables of various kinds were brought and cut into small pieces, and made into curry, fowls were killed and prepared in curries of various kinds, sweet-meats were made, rice was boiled, and everything was made ready for the marriage day." This singular feature of society even now prevails in Tuluva.

And so when everything was got ready, betel-leaves and nuts were received and given back, and on the ensuing week, on a Sunday, the bride was taken to the bridegroom, and the actual ceremony of marriage at last arrived. And then "guests began to come in, relatives, and friends came, and all were made to sit in the marriage pandal. Then the devil-priests of the sthāna

^{1.} I. A. XXV. p. 301.

came and sat in the place of honour. They called Sāma Āļva and asked him if the bridegroom was ready. So the bridegroom and the bride adorned themselves and were brought and made to sit on the raised spot reserved for them. Then the women of the town who had come to the marriage sat in a semi-circle before them. The men sat on one side, the chief men of the caste in the front row. They called Sama Alva and told him to perform the marriage ceremony. He called his sister to him to join him in pouring water. She said—'O brother, do it yourself with your wife. Pour water, you and your wife, and give Dēvi Baidvedi in marriage to my son.' Then he asked the priests of the sthana whether they consented to what his sister had said. They replied—'If you agree to it, we also agree.'

"He asked his relatives and friends and they also consented. Then he stood up and called Sāyana Baidya to him and told him to stand with his face to the east; and next he called Dēyi, his own daughter, and told her to stand with her face to the west, and made them give to each other their right hands, and took a water-pot and poured water and gave the bride to the bride-groom. Then (he) asked the priests what he should do next. 'Now let the bridegroom and the bride sit down,' said they, 'and let the relatives and friends sprinkle rice upon them.'

"Then, one by one, they went and gave money into the hands of the bride and bridegroom and sprinkled rice upon their heads. Afterwards when the sesa (the sprinkling of rice) ceremony was over, all the men and women stood up, and taking rice in their hands, threw it simultaneously upon the bride and the bridegroom, blessing them at the same time saying,—'May you live till the sun and the moon cease to shine! May you live till your hair becomes white! May you get children and grand-children, and may you increase abundantly.' Then the priests told Sāma Āļva to present a new dhōtra to the bridegroom and a new s'īre to the bride. Then the bride and the bridegroom put on new clothes and came and prostrated themselves before their relatives and friends, who blessed them and said—'May God bless you with long life and save you!'

"Then the priests said—'Now make haste; it is getting late; rice and curry is getting cold; let the guests sit down to dinner!' Then all the guests and friends went out of the pandal and servants came with brooms to sweep the place. Afterwards the chief men of the caste came and made all the people sit in rows, and pieces of plantain leaves were placed before each person. The relatives and friends were made to sit in the front rows; and all were made to sit according to rank. Those who had come uninvited were made to sit in the hindmost row. Then rice was brought and served, and curry was brought and served. Then they were told to eat. Then they began to eat. Afterwards pāyasa (a thick gruel like preparation made of cocoanut juice and jaggery, rice and pulse) was served and

over the pāyasa sugar was served in plentifully. All the people partook of as much as they liked, and were satisfied, and said they had never tasted such a good dinner. So they arose from the dinner, and the plantain leaves on which they had eaten were all removed and given to the Koragars. The Koragars found on the plantain leaves quantities of rice, which had been left by the eaters; and they are it and they were glad. So the pandal was swept and cleansed, and again a second party (i. e., those who had not taken their meal at the first time) sat down to dinner; and after they had finished their dinner, a third party (i. e., those who were employed as serving their guests, etc.) sat down to dinner. After all had thus finished their dinner, all the guests sat down, and the chief men of the caste and the priests of the sthana called Sama and said to him-' O Sama Alva, none ever prepared so well for a marriage feast as you have. God's blessing is upon you! You are a fortunate man.' Some indeed said—'He would not have found a girl in the forest if he were not a fortunate man.' Then they said to Sāma Ālva--'Now we will go.' Then he said, clasping his hands-'You have helped me in celebrating the marriage of my nephew. As you have been so kind, this marriage has been celebrated with much success.' At this they said-'Do not complement us; all has gone off so well on account of your good fortune; we have done nothing. Now we are going.' Then he gave them betel leaves and nuts, etc., and showed them respect. So they went away gladly. Then his relatives also prepared to go. But he prevented them and said 'You must stay here four days more.' So they stayed."

As days passed Dēyi Baidyedi was on the way to motherhood. Here it is interesting to note the food that was given to pregnant women in Tuluva. The Pādadāna on Kallurtti enlightens us on this point. Sambu Kalkuda received "letter after letter, messenger after messenger" from Bēlūr. "These letters and messengers are sent on first but I will supply the pregnant woman (his wife) with medicine; and I am coming," said Sambu Kalkuda. He supplied her with five seers of mustard, three seers of pepper, some dried cocoanuts, a pot full of oil, and a bell metal measuring half a seer instead of a stone.

The account of the birth of Kōṭi and Cennaya Baidya is thus given in their Pāḍadāna. "On a lucky day of the month of Sōṇa, the water of pregnancy came in the womb of Dēyi, and her womb grew larger. In the beginning of the ninth month of pregnancy, she was called to the būḍu of Parimale Ballāļa to give him medicine." And when she had cured him of his illness, the time came for her delivery. And "the Ballāļa at once ordered her to be taken to a comfortable place and sent for midwives. The midwives came and helped her, and she brought forth twin boys." According to another version, Dēyi Baidyedi refused to be

^{1.} I. A. XXV, pp. 301-302.

^{3.} Ibid, XXIV, p. 119.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 221.

^{4.} Ibid, XXV, p. 307.

confined in the Ballāļa's $b\bar{u}du$. "I will not bring forth my child at the $b\bar{u}du$ built by you," said she to the Ballāļa. The Ballāļa got her a hut and a yard belonging to one Brahman, a tenant of some dry land. He took off his waist-belt of silver, and placed it for her to hold on. 'By holding this, with one single pain, will you bring forth the children from your womb, and be well. I shall come to give names to your children,' said he.''

Likewise in a third version of the story we have the following-"By this time Devi felt pain and (her attendants) hung a rope to facilitate the delivery, praying to the bhuta Brahmara of Kemmule."2 "Thus did she bring forth and the first satakam and the holy water of God was brought to her, and she bathed on the fortieth day. After some days and months were (had?) passed, Dēvi went to a temple, to obtain merit; and offered at the feet of God an areca flower and a handful of money." Having received several flowers from the priest, she returned home; while her husband, Sayana Baidya, being overjoyed "called some of the wild people who lived in the jungles and told them to bring to him four loads of young bamboo shoots and a load of lemons." With this he hurried to the Ballala's budu. Meanwhile the Ballala of Parimale had sent for her,

^{1.} I.A. XXIV, p. 141.

^{2.} Ibid, XXIII, p. 29.

^{3.} Perhaps that under the charge of Ellur Abbe. B. A. S.

^{4.} I A. XXIV, p. 14.

^{5.} Ibid, XXV, p. 307.

and requested her, since she had already bathed on the fortieth day, to take food in his palace.¹

And then came the ceremony of christening the children. According to one version, it was at the suggestion of the Ballala that the twins were called Kōti Baidva and Cennava Baidya, although just above we saw that it was one Birmana (Brahman) who promisd to christen the children. The Ballala, however, gave them names. "A short stool with three legs was placed for him (the Ballala) to sit on. 'Do you, Dēvi, call your children as I want to see them', said the Ballala. Then she went inside and brought out Kōti who was born first. 'O Dēyi, you had better give this child the name of Kōti that he may endure for ever, like the corner-stone of the temple of Kōteśvara, and to the second child the name Cennaya, that he may endure like the corner-stone of the temple at Cattīśvara', said the Ballala. 'Keep these children in a cradle and swing it'."2

Another version of the story has the following—
"Then, first she brought forth a male child. From
one womb she brought forth two children. On the
ninth day after this, she and her children were purified, and it was desired that the ceremony of giving
names to the children should be performed on that day.
So that he might out-live the corner-stone of the temple

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p. 308; XXIII, p. 29; XXIV, p. 141.

^{2.} Ibid, XXIV, p. 141.

of the god at Kōṭēśvara in the south, the first was named Kōṭi, and so that he might live as long as there existed the corner-stone of the temple of the god at Badiringa (Badarinātha?) in the north, the second was named Cennaya."

And when the children grew into fine youths, there came another important ceremony. It was that of tonsure and a bath. Sayana Baidya, in order to inform the Ballala that the boys needed treatment under a razor, said-"The goddess Kālī who sits in the face of the children whom you have nourished, should be driven away, and the goddess of wealth should be invited to sit there instead." It was to drive out Kali, therefore, that the Ballala ordered his court-clerk to write a letter to the barber of the budy, who lived on the Ghats, to come at once, in whatever dress he was and even though he had half finished his dinner. Thus it was that Kande Bollarasvāmi alias Īsara Kambli living in a place called Karmisale in the city of Ijiva on the Ghats. was made to come through the letter written by Nārāyana Rangoji. The letter was delivered by Vannapa Bhandhari. Isara Kambli at once hurried to the low country taking with him all instruments, viz., "two pairs of razors, a pair of scissors, a small cup for holding water, tweezers and a glass in which the face could be reflected." On reaching the Ballala's palace, he was asked to name all the things required for the ceremony. "Five bundles of betel leaves, five arecanuts,

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 29.

a cocoanut having three eyes, a seer of green rice, and cows' milk are wanted," replied to barber.

"He was supplied with all the things required for his part of the business. All the friends of Sāyana Baidya assembled; a small bower of plantain leaves was formed, festoons of cocoanut leaves were hung up, the inner part of the roof was ceiled, and the ground was covered with a carpet.

"The children of Sāyana Baidya together with the friends who were assembled, circumambulated the bower, the boys being seated within it. Then the pouring of rice on their heads began. First the barber poured it, next Sāyana Baidya, and last of all, Sāyana Baidyedi, mother of Kāntaṇṇa.

"Then the barber holding the left cheek by his hand, began his work on the right cheek of Kōṭi. The front part of his head he shaved and made figures of the sun and moon; and on the back of the head he made the figures of Bhīma and Arjuna. Thus the tonsure of Kōṭi Baidya was finished and he was lifted by the hand. Lamps were waved before his brother's face too in a plate filled with rubies. Coral was thrown on Cennaya's head, and his head too was shaved, and figures of the sun and moon formed on the front part, and figures of Bhīma and Arjuna on the back. The tonsure of both was thus over, and they were now to bathe themselves, and wash away the pollution of being shaved."

^{1.} I.A. XXIII, p. 31.

This ceremony of tonoure seems to have been common in ancient Tuluva. In the Pāḍadāna on the Attāvara Doyyongulu, the two boys were also shaved in precisely the same manner by a barber also from above the Ghats. The barber with his box of razors and looking glass was asked to do his duty to the boys in the palace of Nāgaloka. "An English chair with four legs was placed in the middle of the cāvaḍi, two jugana jōti lamps were placed at the left and right of him, and a seer of rice and a cocoanut were placed before him. A conch-shell was blown and fly brushes were waved on both sides of him. The two boys sat there in undress, while pearls were sprinkled over them and a light adorned with corals was turned towards their faces. So all the ceremony was performed.

"Then the barber came, and placing a cup of water ready, he stood on the left side, and shaved the right side, and then he went to the right side, and shaved the left side, and also cut off the ends of the moustaches. He made a line for the eyebrows and put the sign of the sun and the moon on their hearts, and of Bhīma Rākṣasa on their backs. He polished their toe-nails and cut their finger-nails. In this way did he shave them correctly from head to foot."

Likewise when king Dharma of Kāñci Kaḍanga saw a beard appearing on his cheeks, he immediately sent for the court barber Binnaḍi Kāra. Then the barber on coming to the palace, at once fell to work. "A

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 191.

A. K. 36

European chair with four legs was placed in the middle of the floor. Two jagana lamps were placed on the left and right of it. One seer of rice and a cocoanut were put on a plantain leaf. And then the ringing of the bell was heard and a conch-shell was blown and swishes were waved over the king, who sat on the chair in half-dress. Pearls were cast, and lamps were waved before his face. Then the barber came to the king Dharma and shaved his face and then shaved him from head to foot."

And in all these instances the final question that remained to be answered was-How was one to atone for the sin of having touched a barber? The answer is given in the Pādadāna on Kōti and Cennaya, and on Doyyongulu. "For this purpose (i.e., of washing away the pollution of having been shaved) Kōti and Cennaya got ready the juice of several kinds of leaves growing in dry and wet paddy fields; and uddu and pods of green gram, and several substances for washing away oil; also a thousand pots of hot water and a thousand pots of cold water. They warmed themselves by bathing in the hot water, and cooled themselves by bathing in the cold water. They then went to a room where there was sandal wood, and ground a great deal of the sandal wood, and fully besmeared their bodies down to the waist with it, and then sat down to take their food."2

In the case of the royal children mentioned in the Doyyongulu, oil was rubbed and the heroes took their

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, pp. 97-98.

^{2.} Ibid, pp. 31-52.

bath in a huge pan four hands in breadth. A jatti (lit. a wrestler, but here a person employed to rub oil) was sent for and oil was rubbed on them. A large pan, four hands in breadth, was placed under a white kadika tree near a tank built by one of the boys. A thousand pots of water were poured in and were warmed with twelve bundles of fire-wood, and a thousand pots of warm water were poured on their heads and then a thousand pots of cold water. Thus were they rubbed with oil and washed in water. Then their hair had to be rubbed with cloth made of silk, of the following kinds-kaber, black silk; bober, white silk; sopu kambati, yir madure; the silk which is so light that it flies off three hundred gavudas at a breath; the silk that is soaked by a tear; and the silk which may be concealed between the finger and a nail."1

And when Kōṭi and Cennaya had played their part manfully, their turn came to quit the world. And in the great battle fought in the neighbourhood of Pañja and Eḍambūru, the heroic Kōṭi fell. Rukku Ballāļa, son-in-law of the Eḍambūru Ballāļa, on seeing the great soldier sitting down under a tree, galloped to the Ballāļa's palace, and informed the Ballāļa that the saviour of Eḍambūru was nearing his end. At once a palanquin was sent to fetch the hero. Kōṭi drank the tender cocoanuts given to him by the Ballāļa, who, weeping, said—"'O Kōṭi! You were a hero that was able to save my kingdom. Now the time of its downfall

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 191.

approaches!' But Kōṭi said—'Oh my lord! We shall continue to assist you as we did in our lifetime in the day of battle. Only plant our dagger in the battle-field, and we shall fight, on your behalf, as spirits in the same manner as we did as men. In life we never gave up your cause; therefore, after death, be assured, we shall not fail to assist you.'"

In this parting speech of Kōti we have the essence of the Tuluva belief in spirits. Thus died the noble Kōti. But, the Pādadāna continues, Brahmā in heaven refused to admit the great soldier till he had brought his brother Cennava along with him. "Hearing these words, Köti came back to the world. The younger brother came to the side of a deep well and looked down in it and saw his face reflected in the water. "My brother fell in the battle. What is the use of my living?" said Cennava to himself. So saying he struck his leg (head?) against a rock and thus committed suicide. The news reached the Ballala that Cennava had committed suicide in the house of the physician Barma of the village of Sanje Manje.2 Then the wailing Ballala "caused a mango and a jack tree growing one on each side of a river, to be cut. He caused a funeral pile to be raised in a corner of the burial ground, and had the body burnt. Then the two brothers went in the form of spirits to the throne of Brahmā, who said—'Do not approach the gudi. Do not

^{1 &}amp; 2. I. A. XXIII, p. 90.

come into the yard. You must purify yourselves before you come to me'.

"Hearing the order, they came in the shape of aerial beings, to the Ballala's mansion, and threw the handle of their dagger on the ground, and asked the Ballala to purify them. On the ninth day of their death, the Ballala caused the ashes of their dead bodies to be collected, and on the tenth, had the ceremony of $s\bar{a}lva$ performed. He planted three posts on the burial ground and covered them with clothes of different colours. Thus he caused all the funeral rites to be performed, in as grand a manner as would have been done for a royal Ballala." Having thus purified themselves, they again approached the throne of Brahmā who, once again, refused to entertain them till they had washed themselves in the Ganges. When they had thus completely removed all stain of a bloody life, according to the story, "they came for the third time to the throne of Brahmā. Then they came into the vard and entered the gudi. They stood on the right hand of Brahma and became members of Brahma's council, and were ever afterwards in the world as much honoured as Brahmā himself."1

A grander funeral had been given to their mother Dēyi Baidyedi by the Ballāļa of Parimļe. When she died at the hands of her rival Birmaņņa Baidya, "she went to Kailāsa first and then went to Vaikuņṭha. Wood for burning was placed at the burial ground, a

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, pp. 90-91.

mango tree before and a jack tree behind, being cut down. Sixty bundles of sandal wood were put upon Dēyi and she was burnt with oil and ghī. Then her caste people were called and had to appoint a day for funeral ceremony. The day was appointed. On the third day after the burning, the ashes were gathered and on the fourteenth day the funeral ceremony was performed."

Besides rice, palm juice and arrack, there were the various vegetables. Opium was not unknown to the people in early Tuluva. One of the epithets used by Kōṭi and Cennaya in the volley of abuse they poured upon the trembling Ballāļa of Pañja was that he was "an opium-eating Ballāļa and a bhāng-smoking Ballāļa."

Judged by the Pāḍadānas the Tuluvas seem to have been proficient in the art of cooking. The grand dinner given by the Ballāla of Parimale, to which we have to refer again, in honour of Dēyi Baidyedi, contained famous dishes. Even in the house of Sāyana Baidya there was no dearth of dishes. The two heroes Kōṭi and Cennaya sat down to take their dinner. "There were five hundred kinds of curries mixed with curds, and three hundred kinds of curries mixed with tamarind pickle, and green rice boiled in milk. They are food mixed with ghī, washed their hands in whey, and chewed betel-leaves."

While going on long journeys, the Tuluvas carried food with them to last the time of their travel. Sambu

^{1.} I. A. XXIV, p. 142. 2. Ibid, XXIII, p. 45.

^{3.} Ibid, p. 36.

Kalkuda's daughter determined to find out the whereabouts of her brother, and got ready food for the journey. She "prepared for her brother a meal with one and a half seer of ghi and three pieces of jaggery; a dish with milk, and another mixed with curds; cakes made of rice, sugar, and cocoanut and fried with oil: rice pudding, and rice flour in a leaf. She took the ghi in a pot and tied up the rest in a bundle for her brother. For herself she baked bread and made some curries of vegetables; one and one half seer of ghi, three pieces of jaggery. She tied them all together in a leaf and combed her hair, putting a chaplet of pearls on her head." On reaching Kārkala she heard of the sad plight of her brother, and then she ran to Yenur (Venūru) where she threw her own and her brother's parcel into a river.2

On ordinary occasions the Tuluvas lived on a simpler diet. Even heroes like Kōṭi and Cennaya were content with plain food. The insulting words of the Ballāla of Pañja were read out to the twin heroes, and the poor messenger received as his reward a garland of the very palm-leaves upon which the message had been written but burnt at both the ends! Then Kōṭi and Cennaya took their bath. "They bathed and washed away the oil. They took a little rice-water and they made preparations for going out to battle with all the weapons of war.3

^{1. &}amp; 2. I. A. XXV, pp. 224-225.

^{3.} Ibid, XXIII, p. 88.

The Tuluvas had their own code of etiquette. Kōti and Cennaya, on reaching the house of Payva of Palli, were informed by his wife that he was away drawing toddy from the kadamba and date trees in the great forest called Sanka in the east. They asked her when he would return back. "He goes out in the morning," said she, "and returns at noon. If you are Brahmans wearing the thread, sit down on the round platform of the cocoanut tree bearing red fruit. If you belong to the tribe called the Vakketars, sit down in the shed, built by the poor man. If you belong to our caste, sit down on the swinging cot within the house," said the woman. "Hearing this they approached the house and said—'We will not enter into a house in which there are no males.' They spread out their dirty blanket within the shed and sat on it."1

In another version of the story the same woman speaks thus—"He will return at noon; and if he goes again at midday, he will return back in the evening," said she. "If you are Brahmans, who wear the thread, there is a bench with three legs at the round seat under the red cocoanut. Sit down on the bench. If you are Vakketars and Bāragas, I have spread a mat over the seat at the sampika tree. You can sit down on that. If you are my caste-people, there is a small cottage. Come and sit down there," she said.²

It was improper for men to enter a house where there were no males. That was the reason why, on

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 42. 2. Ibid, XXIV, p. 212.

receiving water at the hands of the fair-looking wife of Payya, Kōṭi and Cennaya said—" Before we drink the water given by you, you must first tell us in what place you were born, the tribe you belong to, the names of your mother and father and the $bh\bar{u}ta$ you worship.

We have already read about the headmen of the caste who made all the people sit in rows and those who had come uninvited in the rear at the marriage feast given by Sāma Āļva. A dinner to the caste people was obligatory on wealthy persons. For if a Billavar failed to give it, he was punished with excommunication. That was the reason why Sāma Āļva requested the Ballāļa to help him.

How the heroes had to dress themselves with $k\bar{a}y\bar{e}ri$ karpoli clothes, and to carry $pa\bar{n}c\bar{o}li$ betel leaves from a vine growing on an arecanut tree and mundoli from a vine on a mango tree before going into the presence of the Ballāla, has been likewise described above.

In addition to these rules the Tuluvas observed other regulations. For example, Billavar women could not put the end of their cloth on the left side and could not wear jewels called mullukoppu on the ears. It was a great privilege, indeed, which the Billavars as a whole received at the hands of the Ballāla of Perimale when he permitted Dēyi Baidyedi "to put on the left side the end of the cloth tied round the middle, one pair of ear-rings and also mullukoppu ear-rings," and a jewel for her nose, and bangles of gold joined by a golden cord for

^{1,} I. A. XXIII, p. 43.

the hand, a dvāria for both hands, a barapatṭe cloth and a $b\bar{a}j\bar{i}banda$ for her hands. He bestowed the right of sallabeja, as the wearing of the cloth was called, and the koraṇaseji ear-rings together with the other presents on her when she had finished partaking of a dinner given by him on the eve of her departure from the royal $b\bar{u}du$.

Social distinctions were also observed on the play-ground and in a bhūta sthāna. The racing buffaloes, according to rules which are still observed, could only be let into the field in the order we have elsewhere given in this treatise. If during a devil-dance the Pombada who personates the devil, "offends a rich Bunt by omitting any of his numerous titles, he is made to suffer for it." The Bunts as well as the Billavars are very particular about their titles and the social rank they occupy in the village. The story of Kōṭi and Cennaya illustrates the intolerable attitude which the Bunts bore towards the Billavars—the jealousy which the Bunt Buddyanta felt at the rise to power of the two Billavar boys Kōṭi and Cennaya, and of the final victory of Billavar heroism over Bunt aristocracy.

It was customary for landowners to treat their tenants with great consideration. This explains why Dēyi Baidyedi received so hospitably the coolies who got her a palanquin and a letter from the Ballāļa. When Vaṇṇapa (Aṇṇapa?) Bhaṇḍāri took the letter to

^{1.} I. A. XXIV, p. 121, ns. (8) & (9).

^{2.} Ibid, XXIII, p. 31.

the barber on the Ghats, "Sayana Baidya paid him the expenses of the journey and of his family during his absence."

12. A PICTURE OF A TUĻUVA VILLAGER'S HOUSEHOLD

A picture of a Tuluva house is given in the Pāḍadāna called Kōṭi Cennaya. It is that of the cowardly Payya Baidya of Palli. The Brahman who met the heroes on the way, described Payya's house thus:—
"There is a gate of bamboos and a spacious cowpen. The house has an upper storey and the wall a pump. The manōli (coccina indica) creeper has been trained up a double pandal. The cocoanut tree bearing red fruit has a circular basin round it, and in front of the house there is a shed with a thick roof."

In another context we have the following concerning a Tuluva house—"A large cowshed, a house with an upper storey, a well covered with copper plates; a seat round a red cocoanut, another seat round which (there is) a sarōli tree on the northern side. These are the marks. If you want to go there, you had better pass the yard at the small opening made with two posts fastened together, and call the house people."

In such a house which the two heroes had seen there was always a corner for preserving articles during the monsoon. The twin heroes were playing

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 31.

^{2.} Ibid, p. 42.

^{3.} Ibid, XXIV, p. 212.

the game of cashew nuts with the children of Buddyanta. And the children of Buddyanta suffered defeat at their hands. Then Buddyanta himself came and took by force all the cashew nuts away from the brothers. And he "took them home and tying them in a cloth, hung them up in the smoke!"

How corn was preserved for the rainy season is described in another version of the same Pāḍadāna. Kōṭi and Cennaya were in the house of Buddyanta, who seeing them resolved himself immediately into a lump of flesh, and got himself covered with some torn pieces of matting behind a hollow post. "Buddyanta's wife! What is that in the torn pieces of matting?" asked they. "O children! They are seeds of the months suggi and yenelu," replied she. "Which are of yenelu?" asked Koti. "Which are of suggi?" asked Cennaya. "Let us see whether they are of suggi or of yenelu," (they said).

As regards furniture in a Tuluva household, we have a few details. A swinging cot of pretty large dimensions was a prominent piece of furniture. When Ellūr Abbe, the priestess in charge of the temple that belonged to the cāvadi of Parimale, had finished blessing the twin heroes, Sāyana Baidya "took them to Erajha and made them sit on a swinging cot hung from a rafter."

In a Brahman's house, however, there was some more furniture. The good Brahman who prophesied

^{1.} *İ. A.* XXIII, p. 30. 2. *Ibid*, XXIV, p. 146.

^{3.} I. A. XXIV, p. 142.

all about the career of the twin heroes, went in and "boiled the milk and reduced it to one seer. Then taking with him a stool made of the wood of the tree called kaḍali, ornamented with flowers of silver, and another of gold set with precious stones, he came to the two brothers."

Some houses contained screens. The little child Koḍababbu lay crying in the hut. And the master of the Koḍange family hearing it came to the hut and called the child's mother. But on receiving no reply, "he came to the outer screen called giḍke and peered in." And then he saw the dead bodies of the child's parents.²

Hand-lamps were used by the Tuluvas. When the Ballala of Mardal heard from his sleeping apartment the dreadful coughing of his buffaloes, he woke up his wife saying—"Be quick and light a lamp!" At this his wife quickly got up and lighted a lamp and brought it to her husband. Then he took the hand-lamp and went to the cow-pen.³ They were evidently the same type of brass hand-lamps used by the people today.

A picturesque detail relating to a Tuluva household is that which concerns cows coming home after grazing on the hills. Kinni Dāru, the sister of the heroes and the wife of Palli Baṇṇaya, on recognizing them as her brothers, "held Cennaya by her left hand and Kōṭi

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 41.

^{2.} Kodadabbu, op. cit.

^{3.} I. A. XXIV, p. 51.

by her right and led them both into the house and seated them on the swinging cot. Then she held a little grass in her hand and called home the cow that had gone out to graze. She put the calf to suck and drew two seers of milk."

Besides the cow there were, of course, the buffaloes about which we have seen something in the description of the kambala, and the cocks, with which Adūru Baidya hurried to the cock-fight, and the dogs, without which the Tuluva Ballālas never went a-hunting. Two other domestic creatures may be noted—the swine which the Tuluvas have made famous in their bhūta Pañjurli; and the pigeons, the colour of which was taken to be the standard colour of palanquins and wallets.

What an intimate knowledge they possessed of the domestic animals, especially of cattle, can be inferred from the story of the *bhūta* Pañjurļi. Kāntu Seṭṭi, Kaḍmaṇa Seṭṭi and Maṭṭu Marbala Seṭṭi,—all children of a man called Guru Sarapoļi and Gollaramma Dēyar, determined to trade by sea. They took to the ship for two years. But profit they could get none. So they began to trade in bullocks.

"'Where do bullocks come from? And whence do cocks come?' asked they. 'Cocks come from Kokkada, and elephants from Anegundi (Vijayanagara) and bullocks from the Ghats,' they were told. So they went to buy bullocks. They kept three hundred

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 43.

rupees in a bag and tied up three hundred rupees in their upper garments. They went to the herd of cows. There were three thousand bullocks, but they found only two good ones amongst them. They asked the price. 'A thousand rupees for the front leg and a thousand rupees for the hind leg. Altogether two thousand rupees,' said the Ganda (Gauda?). 'What is there important about them?' asked they.

"There are certain points in the oxen, viz., a white tail, a white spot on the forehead and points in the four legs, a white tongue, a bent horn and a certain colour in the belly. These are the points in these oxen," said the Ganda (Gauda).1

Although the Tulu people were given to the use of the rice gruel called ganji, yet they do not seem to have favoured much the custom of taking three meals a day. How demeaning it was to take three meals a day can be gathered from the shower of abuse which Kōṭi and Cennaya poured upon the quaking Ballāļa of Panjā. "O you flat-nosed Ballāļa! You crooked-eared Ballāļa of Panjā!...You Ballāļa that takes three meals a day!..." Further, when they had been to the house of Buddyanta, after murdering him in his own field, they were met by his wife who invited them to come inside and taste their dishes. "O Rāma! Rāma! Brahmati! Woman! Hear

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p. 273. The Ghats referred to here are the hill-stations of Subrahmanya and Śirādi which are even now great centres of cattle trade. B. A. S.

^{2.} I. A. XXIII, p. 45.

us! We came here having finished our meal of boiled rice-water. We take our meals twice a day, but not thrice."

13. THE BŪDU OŖ MANORIAL HOUSE OF A TUĻŪVA CHIEFTAIN

That a Tuluva chieftain's house must have been considerably large can be made out from the descriptions given of many $b\bar{u}dus$ (Kannada $b\bar{\iota}du$) in the Pāḍadānas. Kōṭi and Cennaya had finished their toilet and were ready to proceed to the house of their master the Ballāļa of Parimaļe. They got into a palanquin of the colour of parrots, and "each of them tied to his waist a dagger like that of Rāma. Thus did they go to the Ballāļa's house. They approached the gate, and entered the enclosure, and, passing through the yard in front of the house, went into a room set apart for the use of bards, poets and such like people. They then went to a room on the western side of the house, and climbed into the upper storey by means of a rope."

A $b\bar{u}du$ had many rooms. When Dēyi Baidyedi arrived at the $b\bar{u}du$ of the Ballāļa of Parimaļe, he said—"There are seven rooms in my $b\bar{u}du$. One of them do you set apart for her and let her bring forth her children in that room."

Of the many apartments in the būdu the audience hall, the music hall, the hall of the bards, and the kitchen hall were most prominent. Before Dēyi

^{1.} I. A. XXIV, p. 149. 2. Ibid, XXIII, p. 32.

^{3.} I. A. XXIII, p. 29.

Baidyedi departed from the Ballāļa's būdu, he said—"O Dēyi! Do you hear me! You have come to my palace; therefore, you must take your food of pearl-like rice." There were curries prepared with curds of five hundred sorts, with tamarind of three hundred sorts, with cocoanut of a thousand sorts. Pickles of limes known as pottikañci, nāringa, and so on, together with tender bamboos and kavade berries. Yelluri and māpala were prepared, and, moreover, cakes of five or six kinds and a cake of oil-colour too.

"'Now, Dēyi, you had better take your food with $gh\bar{\imath}$, and wash your hands with milk!' said the Ballāļa, and ordered his servants to give Kāntaṇṇa and Sāyana water, and to make Dēyi sit down in the middle! And then Dēyi and others took their food with $gh\bar{\imath}$ and washed their hands with milk and chewed betel-nuts."

The reply given by Cennaya of Edambūru to the heroes who had asked him to introduce them to the Ballāļa of Edambūru, enables us to find out something about the rules that governed a $b\bar{u}du$ as regards the introduction of strangers and officials to the Tuļuva lord.

"I can, said Cennaya, and he took them to his own house. You must stay here today, and I will introduce you tomorrow. Today you must take your meals in my house; tomorrow I shall introduce you at the noon-day levée. In the morning I shall go and ask

^{1.} I. A. XXIV, pp. 120-121.

A. K. 37

his permission,' said Cennaya, and went off at once to the Ballāla's verandah.''1

The Tuluva Ballāla was a chieftain of great authority. The uncle of Kōṭi and Cennaya advised them to go to the Edambūru (Parimle?) cāvadi and "to get a present in addition to the former one, such as sellabeja and sattaneja". So the heroes went to the Ballāla's būdu, and, as we have seen, asked for a gift of paddy fields among which were those reserved for Government taxes.²

A Tuluva Ballāļa knew how to be strict with his dependents. The Ballāļa of Mardāļ, who wished to build a sthāna for the bhūta Pañjurļi, commanded his tenants thus—" Therefore, tomorrow all of you must come together; one or two hundred of you must join together and bring the trees to my house. The man who does not come will be fined. And if he does not pay the fine, I will see that nobody gives him chunam or fire."

There was another mode of punishment which the nephew of the Edambūru Ballāļa used against the man who had stolen Kōṭi's dagger on the battlefield. While that great hero lay wearied on the memorable battlefield of Pañja, a man called Kāļu Nāyaka ran away with the dagger belonging to Kōṭi. At once the Edambūru Ballāļa sent Dēvaṇageri Ballāļa, his nephew, after the

^{1.} I. A. XXIII, p. 44.

^{2.} Ibid, XXIV, p. 150.

^{3.} Ibid, XXVI, p. 65, Chunam and fire refer to social excommunication; See supra pp. 320, n. (1)

thief, it: When Devanageri Ballala arrived, Kalu Nayaka was going away with the dagger but he caught Kalu Nayaka and tied him to a horse's feet and made the horse run away. Then Kalu's face and nose was broken and he died." The part played by the spies of the Ballala of Edambūru has been already narrated in a previous page.

The most noteworthy sport of a Ballala was his hunt. People judged, as we saw, the ability and prowess of a Ballala by the hunting expeditions he arranged in the course of the year. The Ballala of Parimale, for example, was reckoned to be a famous hunter. When the day of the hunt approached, "the Ballala called his clerk and told him to notity to all his tenants, his intention of going on a hunt, that they might be present at his $b\bar{u}du$ on such and such a day. All were ordered to bring their weapons and come prepared for the hunt. So they came on the appointed day. The Ballala saw them. They were about two hundred able-bodied men that assembled before the budy. They were ordered to take their evening meal that day in the budu. "So, food was prepared for all of them, and they sat down in rows according to their paste..... The next day the Ballala called them and examined their weapons and instruments, their bows, arrows, and snares; and called Malla, the keeper of dogs to bring the dogs." The dogs were given "rice

ol 1(181.) A. XXIV, p. 271.

mixed with milk." "Afterwards he called Golla, and examined the guns and bullets and ammunition, and saw that everything was in the best possible condition. Then he called Paddyala, and told him to show the bows and arrows, because they were in a very efficient condition. And, in this manner, he examined everything himself; the snares, the darts, and many other instruments of hunting. The men, every one of them, praised the superiority of his own instrument, and boasted of his former exploits. In this manner time passed, and as it had become late, the hunt was postponed for the next day. The Ballala said- 'Tomorrow, very early in the morning, before the crows alight on the ground, we must start for the hunt. Today all of vou must take your meals in my būdu. In the mean time you must all sharpen year weapons. Your darts, arrows, and all sorts of weapons must be in the best condition possible.'

"At this all were very glad, and every man went to mind his own business. So, on the next day, very early in the morning, they all started for the hunt with bows and arrows, darts and guns and various other instruments of destruction, and took many dogs with them. Thus they went out to hunt. The Ballāla went along with them. When they reached the great forest of Parimale, the day began to dawn. The Ballāla gave them orders. He stationed half of them with the dogs in the forest, telling them to make as much noise as possible and to frighten the wild beasts and drive them before them.

They took great sticks and struck at thickets and bushes, and made a great noise. Though they were quite tired they did not find any wild beasts. So they returned quite tired and without finding a single wild beast and said to the Ballala—'It seems that the moment of our starting was not auspicious. Otherwise in this great forest, where tigers, bears, and wolves, and such wild beasts abound, we must have found some wild beasts.' Then the Ballala made a vow and said--'If I get at least one wild beast, I will give a tambila to the bhūta in our house.' After the Ballala had said this, they again started and began to beat the thickets and bushes and halloed, and yelled and made as much noise as possible. Then a big boar came in sight, and the dogs at once gave chase and overtook it: and as it came to the place where the hunters were stationed, Golla the hunter fired at it and the bullet took effect and the boar fell down and rolled about. and writhed in agony. Then they speared it and killed it," 1

The desire to preserve peace in his dominions and to maintain efficiency among hunters led the Ballāla to proclaim prizes to those who shot the wild beasts in the forest. Kōti met Buddyanta and told him how had Cennaya been in their presence, Buddyanta would have been dealt with in a very severe manner by his younger brother. "You praise your brother, Has he conquered the land, hunting a tiger? Has he been

^{1.} I. A. XXV, p. 305.

presented with a seer of gold rings for having killed a tiger? Has he been covered with peacock's feathers? Has he fought a battle, riding on a nooseless horse? Has he put the sky above the earth?" said Buddyanta.

Opulence was a special feature of Ballāla's royal houseold. The sallabeja and sattaneja rights, the golden ear-rings and the jewels for the nose, the balls of gold and the bājibanda, the dvāria and the bārapatte given by the Ballāla to Dēyi Baidyedi are a proof of the generous manner in which the Tuluva Ballālas rewarded persons who had done them some special service. It was not only distinguished visitors that tasted the opulence of the Ballālas. Even the servants and tenants of the būdu were recipients of rewards. To the carpenters and other wage-earners who had helped him to construct the sthāna of the bhūta Pañjurli, the Ballāla of Mardāl "gave them their due" and "he also gave them presents and sent them away."

How paternally a Ballala, and especially the Ballala's wife, looked after the material condition of all, including the servants and cattle, can be understood from the Padadana of the bhūta Panjurli. Bhūta Panjurli wanted somehow to make the Ballala of Mardal realize the necessity of building a sthāna for the new bhūta, and so waited "till sunset and afterwards entered into the cowpen and kept quiet in a corner, till the cowherds had collected all the cattle

^{1.} I. A. XXIV, p. 148.

^{2.} Ibid, XXVI, p. 309, 65.

into the cowpen. In the meantime the night came on, and it was time for the master of the house to take his meal. Then all the servants of the house, the bondmen, and those who had undertaken work on contract and day-labourers and rice men and rice watermen, all these came to take their meals. Then the bondmen went into the cowpen to give fodder to the cattle, and gave rice water to the buffaloes and oxen; and after they had drunk, they put the watering trough upside down; and then put straw and green grass before them; and making everything comfortable for the cattle went their way. In the meantime, the mistress of the house having served food to her husband, called the bondmen. 'O bondmen, bring your yessels and take your food.'

"Then they called their wives from their huts and told them to bring the vessels. Then they took their children on their hips and the vessels on their heads, and each came to the būdu and called the mistress of the house—'O mistress, mistress! Please bring me the rice. I have brought the vessel. I have no one in my hut. I have kept paddy on the fire to be boiled and there is nobody to look after the fire.' At this the mistress quickly brought the rice and gave it to the bondmen. She also brought a big spoon of cocoanut shell and put four spoonsful of rice and four spoonsful of ganji for each, and sent away the bondwomen to their huts. And after all had eaten and finished, all lay down to sleep."

^{1.} I. A. XXVI, p. 51.

Appendix A

THE GREEK FARCE WITH OLD KANNADA PASSAGES

Summary:—1. Introduction. 2. Summary of the Plot. 3. Criticism of the Kannada passages. 4. Scene of action. 5. The Greek Farce with Old Kannada passages.

1. Introduction

At the instance of the Biblical Archaeological Association at Oxyrhynchus in Egypt, excavations were carried out in 1899 and a large find of papyri was made. In 1903 Bernard P. Grenfell and Arthur S. Hunt with the assistance of other scholars published with translations the finds in the III. Volume called "The Oxyrhynchus Papyri Part III." The following is one of the classical fragments in which many words in an Indian language occur. This piece forwarded to me by Dr. R. Shama Sastry in February 1926. And I sent him early in March a rendering of the words in the unknown language together with a note on the probable scene of action. A thorough re-examination of the farce while in the British Museum in 1929-1931, and fresh investigation in the neighbourhood of the scene of action made after my return from Europe, enable me to give the following interpretation of the Farce. I should like in this connection to express my deep gratitude to my learned friend Pandit K. B. Rāmakṛṣṇayya of Udipi without whose help it

^{1.} Since Dr. Shama Sastry's interpretation appeared in his Annual Report of the Mys. Arch. Dept for 1926, two versions of the Greek-Kannada Farce have been published: one by Mr. S Srikanthaya in the Quarterly Journal of the Mythic Society, and the other by Mr. Govind Pai in the Prabuddha Karnātaka for 1930. Mr. Pai is right when he says that the passages are in Kannada. B. A. S.

would not have been possible for me to render this piece into Kannada.

2. SUMMARY OF THE PLOT

A Greek lady had fallen into the hands of an Indian king. A party of Greeks arrived in a ship, and after making the Indian king and his followers fully drunk, managed to escape with the Greek lady. (For a fuller treatment of the plot and an account of the characters in the Farce, the reader is referred to Dr. Sastry's interpretation of the Farce as given in his Mysore Archaeological Report for 1926, pp. 11 seq.)

3. CRITICISM OF THE KANNADA PASSAGES IN THE FARCE

Hultzsch was the first to declare that the passages in the unknown language were in Kannada. Dr. Sastry has given a tentative rendering of the Kannada passages in the in the same Report for 1926. But Dr. Barnett rejected them completely. Dr. Barnett's arguments may be summarized thus:—

We have no direct knowledge of Kannada of such an early period, viz., of the second century A.D. or possibly earlier. The earliest work in Hale Kannada is Kavīśvara's Kavīrājamārga. Dr. Barnett lays down three criteria by which we are to judge the value of the rendering of the alledged passages into Kannada. These are the following:—Firstly, if the proposed reconstruction of the passage in the unknown language agrees with the oldest classical Kannada texts, we may provisionally accept it; if it shows features of the mediaeval or modern dilects, we must reject it.

^{1.} Hultzsch J. R. A. S. for 1904, pp. 390 seq.

^{2.} Barnett, Journal of Egyptian Archaeology, XII, P. I-II, pp. 13-15. See also Keith, History of Skt. Literature, p. x. (Oxford 1928) where Dr. Keith likewise does not believe that the passages are in Kannada. B. A. S.

Secondly, the interpretation must make good sense, be natural and not forced. And, thirdly, the interpretation should not unduly alter the text. Judged by these standards, the interpretation given by Hultzsch is on all points unproven. While admitting that the language used in the Farce was Indian, Dr. Barnett concluded that "it has yet to be interpreted."

There cannot be any doubt that these unassailable and perfectly sound arguments can be substantiated by other evidence which goes to prove that Kannada as a prominent language was non-existent in the Karnāṭaka, and in Tuluya as well perhaps, in the early centuries of the Christian era. It is well known that Prākṛt was used in the Aśokan inscriptions discovered in Mysore; that all the Edicts of that monarch were engraved in the Brahmi script; that Prākṛt was the language not only of the Śātavāhanas but also of the early Kadambas as well; and that the earliest epigraphs discovered in the Karnāṭaka, as for instance those relating to the migration of Bhadrabāhu, the Bāṇas, and the Kadambas, were all engraved in the Sanskrit language and not in the Kannada language. 1

Notwithstanding the above facts, it is permissible to bring forward a few considerations in regard to the antiquity of the Kannada language. While it is no doubt true that Prākṛt was the official language of the earliest sovereigns of Karnāṭaka, it has yet to be proved that that was the language of the masses as well. If this is admitted, then one is led to assume that the people of the Karnāṭaka, and, therefore, of Tuluva, spoke a language which was other than Prākṛt. Indeed, there are good grounds to suppose that

^{1.} Mys. Archl. Rep. for 1929, pp. 52; 56, 57; My. Arch. Rep. for 1928, pp. 10-11; Mys. Insc. p. 304; E. C. H. No. 1, p. 1; ibid. VII. Sk. 263, 264, pp. 142; ibid. XI. Intr. pp. 1-5, Mk. 14, 21, 31, pp. 91-96.

Karnāṭaka, was known to the westerners, and that Kannaḍa as a dialect existed in the early centuries of the Christian era. While dealing with the question of the antiquity of Tuluva, it was shown that in the first and second centuries of the Christian era, Alvakheḍa was known to the Greeks under the name of Oloikhora. The ending of this as well as other names, e. g., Basarūru, Punnāṭa,¹ etc. were certainly Kannaḍa endings.

The fact that Roman coins of Augustus Caesar have been found at Candravalli sufficiently proves that in the early centuries of the Christian era, there was commercial intercourse between the Karnātaka and the western world.²

The most convincing proof of the exsistence of the Kannada language prior to the times of Kavīśvara is afforded in the Halmidi stone inscription which we have mentioned in connection with the foreign relations of the Alupas. This stone inscription definitely carries the antiquity of the Kannada language to the fifth century A. D. It is not too much to suppose that the Kannada language may have existed at least one or two centuries earlier, viz., in the fourth and third centuries A. D.

The Alupa records themselves, as we have amply demonstrated, in the previous pages, prove that Kannada was a spoken language in the sixth and seventh centuries A.D., i. e., two or three centuries earlier than the time of the author of Kavirājamārga. Indeed, a good many stone inscriptions in the Kannada language ranging from about

^{1.} As regards Punnāta, Cf. Saletore, *Indian Culture*, III, pp. 309-317 where the antiquity of this ancient kingdom has been described.

^{2.} My. & Coorg., p. 15, n. (1); Krishna, Excavations at Chandravalli, p. 25; Q. J. M. S. I. pp. 38-39; X p. 251; XV. p. 256; XVIII. p. 294; Ep. Car. Coorg Ins., p. 103 (1914).

the sixth century A. D. till the beginning of the eighth century A. D., conclusively show that the antiquity of the Kannada language can be dated to, at least, four centuries earlier than the age of the Kavīśvara. Under these circumstances, it is extremely doubtful whether we can maintain that we have no direct knowledge of Kanarese of a period earlier than that ascribed to the Hale Kannada work Kavirājamārga.

Any reconstruction of the Kannada passages in the Greek Farce must agree not only with the known classical Kannada canons, but, we may venture to add, with a few known facts of the region the history of which we have outlined in this treatise. Here it is interesting to observe how one or two statements made in the Farce agree with the historical facts we have mentioned above.

The first point to be noted in this connection is that the Farce speaks of the Malpe Nāyaka. Epigraphical evidence amply proves the existence of Nāyakas for the cities of Udayāvara and Kolalagiri. That Malpe had a Nāyaka is, therefore, not at all unlikely or unhistorical. Whether we have to assume that the term Malpe Nāyaka was one of the personal designations of the king mentioned in the Farce, is not certain; but the Farce only confirms the evidence of epigraphs concerning the existence of a Nāyaka over a city. In other words, it adds to the testimony of the epigraphs in regard to the municipal character of some of the ancient towns of Tuluva.

The reason why Malpe had a Nayaka is to be found in the fact that it was a harbour of first-rate importance. Indeed, undeveloped and uncared for as it is to-day, Malpe is still one of the safest harbours for coastal vessels on the western coast today. The appearance of the Greeks on the

^{1.} Mys. Insc. pp. 186, 305; E C. II. Nos. 4-9, 12, 31, pp. 3-7.

shore of Malpe was because it was one of the trade centres of ancient Tuluva. As against this it might be objected that Ptolemy does not mention it, and that, therefore, it was unknown to the Greeks. But we may remember that Ptolemy's knowledge of the trade centres of Tuluva was not personal, and that he may have confounded Alvakheda with Malpe itself.

Further, there are two other considerations which we may mention before passing on to the scene of action of the Farce. The Farce confirms the antiquity of the Alupas as proved by the Halmidi stone inscription and the early stone records of the Western Cālukyas and the Gangas. A sculptured stone in one of the private houses at Udayāvara near the ancient Ganapati temple contains the figure of a king wearing the sacred thread and the crown, but fighting against an unknown enemy. This strikingly corroborates the evidence of the Farce that the ruler mentioned in it wore the sacred thread.

Moreover, the Farce confirms likewise the Saivite religion of the Ālupas.

We may incidentally note here that the evil of drinking which is a noteworthy feature of the Farce, is particularly pointed out in the later inscription of Kundavarmarasa II in which, as we have seen, the surā pāna (krto-) doṣo is explicitly stated to have been removed by the king. Whether we are to suppose that the evil of drinking was common among the Ālupa kings, and whether it was finally removed by Kundavarmarasa II cannot be made out.

^{1.} It need not be imagined that since the king in the Farce is described to have worn the sacred, he was necessarily a Brahman. No doubt the names of the mediaeval Ālupas end in varman. But while we are certain of their having been Saivites, it has yet to be proved that they were Brahmans. This is the reason why drinking seems to have been in vogue amongst them.

Finally, another trifling detail is the remarkable identity between the name of the rive Pscholicus given in the Farce and the name Sivāluka mentioned in the Padma Purāna. Thus in the Padma Purāna:—

Nadhyaḥ punya-jalāḥ tatra Gangā-ca bahudhā gatā \
Sukumārī Kumārī-ca Sītā S'ivodakā (S'vālukā,
S'ivolukā) tathā \(\bar{u}\)

Mahānadī-ca bho viprāḥ-tathā-maṇijalā-nadī l Iksuvardhānikā-ca eva nadī munivarāḥ smrtāḥ¹ ll

In the above passage two rivers of Tuluva are mentioned before Sivāluka-the Kumārī and the Sītā. It is probable that Sivalukā was another and an earlier name of the Pāpanāsinī upon which Uḍipi may be said to lie. In that case, it may be that Sivālukā was the name given to the river because it passed through, or was associated with, Sivalli which comprised quite a considerable part of modern Uḍipi and Malpe.

4 THE SCENE OF ACTION

This brings us to the scene of action of the Farce. We believe that it was laid in the neighbourhood of Malpe itself either at modern Bāhadurgaḍha or at Oḍabhāṇḍeśvara. Of these the former has lost all traces of its ancient Saivite worship. For not only has it, like many a Saivite centre in Tuluva, passed into the hands of the Vaiṣṇavites, but lost its Vaiṣṇavite traces as well, probably after it passed into the hands of the Mysore Sultans in

As regards Greek women coming to the western coast of India in the second century AD, we may note that there is evidence of "their presence in the neighbourhood of the caitya cave at Karle! (Vats, E. I., XVIII, pp. 325-329). There is nothing improbable in the Greeks visiting the coast of Tuluva in the same-century. BPAI Breeks

^{1.} Padma Purāņa, Adhyāýa VIII. vv. 30-31, p. 12.

the eighteenth century A.D.1 It is not unlikely that the scene mentioned in the Farce was laid at Odabhandeśvara itself.2 The modern Vaisnavite temple at Odabhandesvara was certainly Saivite in origin, as the images of Isvara lying in the neighbourhood of the temple amply prove The name kanana which is still applied to the entire region of Malpe round about the temple of Isvara as far as Kodavūru, unmistakably refers to the fact that it was covered by a forest in early days. Here around the temple of Isvara at Odabhandesvara the Greeks may have come, and here it was perhaps that the events mentioned in the Farce were enacted. As regards the image of the "Moon Goddess," all that we may venture to say is that the Greeks confounded the image of the Saviouress (i.e., of the Buddhist goddess Tārā) with an image of the Moon Goddess of whom the Hindu religion knows nothing.3

With these few considerations before us, we may now proceed to give a reconstruction of the Kannada passages

^{1.} The image of Gaṇapati and the *linga* which had been at Oḍabhāṇḍeśvara are now in private houses at Malpe proper, and the image of Hanumanta of that same place has been taken to Oḍabhāṇḍeśvara. B. A. S.

^{2.} The etymology of the word Odabhāndeśvara is doubtful. Popular tradition derives it thus— $\bar{o}da$ -bhānda-Iśvara-ship-vessel-Iśvara, and people say that the incident of the ship-wreck mentioned in the Madhva-vijaya took place here. B. A. S.

^{3.} Mr. Govinda Pai's assumption that Udayāvara itself was the scene of action is inadmissible. (*Prabuddha Karnāṭaka*, XI. No. pp. 37-40). We cannot conceive of an Ālupa king falling into the hands of a party of foreigners in Udayāvara itself or in a temple near that city. The ruins of the palace of the Ālupas lie so close to the seashore that it is improbable that the drinking bout and its consequences could have happened there without the people of the city knowing it. Further, the explicit reference to the forest from which the women emerged after a hunting expedition, precludes any idea of our associating Udayāvara with the scene of action. B. A. S.

in the Farce, admitting that is only provisional in character.

- 5. A TENTATIVE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE GREEK FARCE WITH OLD KANNADA PASSAGES
 - B. Lady Charition, rejoice with me at my escape!
 - A. Great are the gods.
 - B. What gods, fool (?).
 - A. Cease, fellow.
 - D. Wait for me here and I will go and bring the ship to anchor.
 - A. Go? For see, here come their women from the chase.
 - B. Oh! What huge bows they have!

A woman. Kraunou.1

Another. Lalle.2

Another. Laitalianta Lalle.3

Another. Kotakos anab, Iosara.4

B. Hail!

All. Laspathia.5

- B. Ah! Lady help!
- A. Alemaka!6

All. Alemaka.7

- B. By Athena, there is no (harm) from us.
- A. Wretch, they took you for an enemy and nearly shot you.

^{1.} Karevā nāv. Shall we shoot?

^{2.} Lalle. (Warning her).

^{3.} Elē tāļi antāļ lalle. Lalle asks you to wait? (Is it not so?)

^{4.} $Ak\bar{o}$ tako (tago) sanab iyo sara. Lo! Take the string of hemp. Give the arrow!

^{5.} I (vi) lāsapati ā. The Buffoon! Ah!

^{6.} Alem akkā. Is he (the proper) person (to be shot), Sister?

^{7. ·} Alla emmakkā. No, our sister!

- B. I am always in misfortune. Will you them.....to the river Psolichus?¹
- A. As you like (Drums) (B.porade²)
 - All. Minei.3
- F. Lady Charition, I see the wind is rising, so that we may cross the Indian Ocean and escape. So enter and fetch your property, and if you can, carry off one of the offerings to the Goddess.
- A. Prudence, fellow! Those in need of salvation must not accompany their petitions to the gods with sacrilege. For how will the gods listen to men who try to win mercy with wickedness?
 - B. Don't you touch? I will fetch it.
- D: Fetch your own things then.
 - A. I do not need them either, but only to see my father's face.
 - D. Enter, then; and do you serve them.....and give them their wine strong, for here they come.
 - B. I think they are the daughters of swine: these too I will get rid of (Drums.....)
 - All. Ai Arminthi⁴ (Drums.)
 - B. They also have run away to the Psolichus.
 - C. Yes; but let us get ready, if we are to escape.
- B. Lady Charition, get ready, if you can take under your arm one of the offerings to the goddess.
- A. Hush! Those in need of salvation must not

^{1.} This may have been the river Papanasini (ancient Sivaluka?).

^{2.} Against the name of A. is the letter B. and the word porade (horate, horade). If it is meant as a word spoken by B., then, the me ning scems to be "start, then". But if applied to A., the meaning probably is "I am starting, ready!".

[&]quot;Mīyōṇē. Shall we take our bath?"

^{4.} Ey ār mindi(r). Have all of you taken your bath?

sacrilege. For how will they listen to the prayers of those who are about to gain mercy by wickedness? The property of the goddess must remain sacred.

- B. Don't you touch; I will carry it.
- A. Don't be silly, but if they come, serve them the wine neat.
- B. But if they will not drink it so?
- C. Fool, in these regions wine is not for sale. Consequently if they get hold of this kind of thing, they will drink it neat against their will (?)
- B. I'll serve them lees and all.
- C. Here they come, having bathed...........(Drums)
 King. Brathis.¹

All. Brathis.1

- B. What do they say?
- C. Let us draw lots for the shares, he says.
- B. Yes. let us.

King. Stoukepairomellokoroke.2

B. Back, accursed wretch.

King. Brathis³ (Drums). Bere konzei damun⁴ petrekio paktei kortames⁵ bere ialer ode pomenzi petrekiodam⁶ ut kinze paxei zebes lolo bia bradis

^{1.} Bharti isu. Cause to be served in plenty.

^{2.} Istu avage poyre mella karake. Pour a little into his hand slowly.

^{3.} Bharti î(su). Give me the precious drink.

^{4. &}amp; 5. Bêre koñca îyada munna bêtir êkeyo bhaga tekol tammā īsu. Why did you put down your cup before some more was served? Take a portion! Serve a little, Brother!

^{6.} Bere iyal irade pogum en (i) si betireke (betirak i) adam. Thinking there will be no more to be served must you have put down your cups.

kottos.1

- All. Kottos.2
- B. May you be kicked by 'Kottos.

King. Zopit³ (Drums).

- B. What do they say?
- C. Give them a drink, quick.
- B. Are you afraid to speak then? Hail, thou whose days prosper! (Drums)

King. Zeisoukormosede4 (Drums)

- B. Ah! Not if I know it.
- C. It is watery; put in some wine (Much Drumming).
- G. Skalmakata bapteiragoumi.6
- H. Tougoummi⁷ nekelekethro⁸
- G. Eitou belle trachoupterugoumi.
- B. Ah! None of your disgusting ways! Stop! (Drums) Ah! What are you doing?
- H. Trachountermana. 10
- G. Boullitikaloumbai platagoulda bi...¹¹
- B. Apuleukasar¹² (Drums)
- 1. Üta kenise apēkņe sēvisa lolla bhaya birdu īsiko tusa. Is your desire for dinner so little? Would you not eat or drink? Fear! Take a little!
 - 2. Kodu tusa. Give a little!
 - 3. (Hē) Oppit. Ah! Excellent!
 - 4. (Hē) Īsi koļ mosade. Ah! Take by deceit!
- 5 & 6. Isu kāla māgada pāpa tīra gommi. The sin (of drinking) which you have not committed till now, may be ended this day only! (In other words, empty the cup).
 - 7. Tego ommi. Take once (again).
 - 8. Nīgaļ ēke edro. Why did you get up?
- 9. Eytu belle drācca vappa tīra gomme. How pure (white) is the wine! Let it be finished once for all!
- 10. Drācca undare māna. It is honour to partake of the (juice of) grapes!
- 11. Bavu oļļittu ī kāla umbay pāla tago oldu. You will be very happy this year. Take a share lovingly.
 - 12. A puliyakku sāra. Ah! It will be sour! (Get away!)

King. Chorbonorbothorba1

toumionaxiz² despit platagoulda bi...³ Seso srachis⁴ (Drums) oradosatur⁵ ouamesare⁶ sumpsaradara ei ia da...⁷

B. Martha marithouma edmaimai maitho⁸ thamouna martha marithouma (Drums).....tun⁹

King. Malpinaik ouroukoukoub (n?) i karako...ra10

All. Aball

King. Zebede¹² za biligidoumba¹³

All. Aba oun14

King. Pan oum bretikateman ouman brethououeni

- All. Panoumbretikate manouam brethou oueni¹⁶ parakoum bretikatema noum bret ououeni¹⁷ olusadi-
- 1-7. Ceruva norva torvatā umiya nekşisi dēša bitta pāla teko oldu seşa rekşisoldose teru o umešverā somsāra dāra ērya adā. One shows boiled rice, another who sees the husk in it, runs away out of the country. Take a share lovingly. Sesa! Protect! Show your love lovingly! Oh! Umeŝvara! Is this the door of samsāra?
- 8 & 9. Mardam aridev māyada mayme māydatta mauna aridevemma. We have found out a medicine! Wherever the greatness of this magic spreads strongly, silence is produced. Lady! We have found out a medicine!
- 10. Malpī nāykavara (referring to himself) kō...kōṇi karakō. Take Malpe Nāyaka into the house!
 - 11. Aba (Exclamatory) Aba!
- 12 & 13. Hā bēḍa billigiḍu amba. Ha! Do not do so! He will order you to be shot!
- 14. Aba ōvan. Oh! (Truly!) He will protect you. (if you act according to his wishes!)
- 15. Pāna umba rettikkade māna umba rettā avvenī. Oh! Lady, how will you aspire for honour unless the drinking people (ourselves) hold you (in) high (esteem?)
 - 16. Same as 15.
- 17. Para komba rettikkade māna umbarettā avvenī. Oh! Lady, how will you get honour unless those (who take the other world?) hold you (in) high (esteem)?

zaparda piskou piskate man arei man ridaou oupatei...a' (Five drummings)

- King. A boundless barbaric dance. I lead, O goddess moon. With wild measure and barbaric step; Ye Indian chiefs, bring the drum of mystic sound.² The frenzied Seric step. (Much drumming and beating)
- All. Orkis.3
- B. What do they say again?
- C. He says, dance.
- B. Just like living men. (Drums).
- C. Throw him down and bind him with the sacred girdles. (Much drumming. Finale).
- B. They are now heavy with drink.
- C. Good; Charition, come out here.
- A. Come, brother, quickly; is all already?
- C. Yes, all; the boat is at anchor close by; why do you linger? Helmsman, I bid you bring the ship alongside here at once.
- D. Wait till I give him the word.
- B. Are you talking again, you bungler? Let us leave him outside to kiss the ship's bottom.
- C. Are you all aboard?
- All. Aboard.
- A. O Unhappy me! A great trembling seizes my wretched body. Be propitious, Lady goddess! Save thy hand-maiden!
- 1. Olisadiha paradappisiko oppisi kodemmanārai emmanaridu oppade. You will forfeit the happiness of this and the other world without yielding to the will of the king (i. e., if you do not yield to the will of the king.) Submit! Protect us (by becoming our queen). Did (do) you understand us? Do you not approve? (Or is not to your liking?)
- 2. Perhaps the drum that is used by the people of Tuluva. B. A. S.
- 3. Oragisu. Make him lie down! (lest he should fall and hurt himself.)

Appendix B

1. HOUSEHOLDS IN THE THIRTY-TWO GRAMAS OF TULUVA

Western Grāmas

Abbreviations: --M = Mangalore version.

B=Bhattacarya's version, pp. 27, seq.

P=Puttige version.

Numerals refer to the households.

	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
· d	1. Karevūru grāma As in B except for Pāturāya who is given as Pārurāya (4)	2. Varkādi grāma Mayūrākh- Tāļetāya, Ayapināya, Nāra- As in B except for Ayapinaya, yane Taletāya, latāya, latāya, latāya, latāya, Sunnōṇḍitāya, pattāya, and Nētratāya (8) Mañjugōḍitāya (8) Mańjugōḍitāya (8)
В	. Karevūru grāma Talepāditāya, Pārurugya, Pāturāya, Pakurāya, Kudure-arevūrutāya, Poyyatāya (4) ditāya, Meyyūrutāya, Poyya-ya and Poyyatāya's son (8)	2. Varkāģi grāma Tāļetāya, Ayapināya, Nāra- ļatāya, Nētratāya, Arināya, Kidekidenāya, Suņņõņģitāya, and Kuñjitturāya (8)
W .	1. Karevūru grāma Talepāditāya, Pārūrutāya, Pāturāya, Pakurā, Karevūrutāya, Iciltāya, Anan-tāya, Poyyatāya (4) tōditāya, Meyyūrutāya, Poyya- tāya and Poyyatāya's son (8)	2. Varkādi grāma Madalūrutāya, Mayūrākh- yane Talctāya, Nāralatāya, Aryappināya, Nētratāya Kide- kidelāya, Saņņadkatāya, and Mafijugōditāya (8)

вј		WEST	ERN GRĀMAS		599
3. Maraņe grāma As in B except for the first given as Pidekaģenāya (2)	4. Omitted in P (But see below No. 17)	5. Pāģi grāma As in B	6. Kūdila grāma Sambaraņ- As in B but for the second Mittadkat. given as Kambaranāya.	7. Mogebailu grāma As in B but read for the third Tamlantōḍitāya (4)	8. Mittanāļu grāma As in B but read for the last Paraļatāya (4)
3. Maraņe grāma Baģekeģenāya, Šuļyaņņāya (2)	4. Kolavi grāma Talepāditāya, Mañjanōdi- tāya (2)	5. Pāḍimogara grāma Ametāya, Sambaratāya, Induvaļitāya, Koyakuḍalāya (4)	6. Kūģalu grāma Kaņņuraņņāya, Sambaraņ- ņāya, Irvattūrāya, Mittaḍkat· tāya (4)	7. Mogebaila grāma Pijitāya, Piļikaritāya, Kabbu- koģitāya, Muģetāya (4)	8. Mittanāļu grāma Kuņdagoļatāya, Nūjitāya, Gangetāya, Saraļatāya (4)
3. <i>Maraņi grāma</i> Bakkutāya, Innontāya (2)	4. Kaļavinādu grāma Suļyaņņāya, Padakaņņāya (2)	5. <i>Pāḍi grāma</i> Amettōḍitāya, Kakkilāya, Iḍuvaḷitāya, Kamōṭitāya (4)	6. Kūģilu grāma Pijetāya, Piļļikaratāya, Kōṭi- kuñjatāya, Kudukuļļāya (4)	7. Mogebailu grāma Talyantōditāya, Irnūrāya, Kidelurāya, Kuņikudalāya (4)	8. Mittanāļu grāma Kadambaļatāya, Gangetāya, Depuñjatāya, Baļkulāya (4)

000	ni.	GIENI KAKNAIA	NA.	r.pp.
44.	rāma nantodatāya, nnāraņņāya, varatāya (6)	āma or 3rd, 5th & Munnurāya, I Maģikaļa- (only 8)	ma ead for 1st, h, 7th Möne- Köpöntäya, anjinäya (8)	ima
d	9. <i>Nīrumārga grāma</i> Ucalatāya, Anantōdatāya, Alampāditāya, Kannārannāya, Kumārantāya, Māvaratāya (6)	10. Simantūru grāma As in B except for 3rd, 5th & 7th for which read Munnurāya, Maccantāya, and Madikala- tāya respectively (only 8)	11. Tenakaļa grāma As in B but read for 1st, 2nd, 4th contra, 6th, 7th Mõne- nāya, Mittöntāya, Kõpõntäya, Ulyarāya, Mallyabañjināya (8)	12. S'ivabelli grāma (120) See below
B	9. <i>Nīrmārga grāma</i> Ambaratāya, Icalutāya, Anantōditāya, Indravaļļitāya, Kaņņāraņa, Thālampāditāya, Taraļāya, Mā- Kambaraņa, Irvanturāya, Ko- varāva, Kumārantāya (6) yakōditāya, Mittanadukatāya	10. Srīmantūru grāma 10. Sīmantūraya, Sibarāya, Maņ. As in B except for 3rd, 5th & Munnūrāya, Mucchantāya, nurāya, Ipprantāya, Mukyan, 7th for which read Munnurāya, Madikuļāya, Sedikuļāya, Asu. tāya, Mudikuḍalāya, Sidikaļa. Maccantāya, and Madikaļarapeņņāya (7)	11. Tenakala grāma 11. Tenakala grāma Mogerāya, Mittatāya, Madu. As in B but read for 1st, mannāya Vailāya, (idakke pra. 2nd, 4th contra, 6th, 7th Mönetināma [contra] Kañcitāya), nāya, Mittöntāya, Köpöntāya, Vokudināya, Ulirāya, Malliñ ji. Ulyarāya, Mallyabañ jināya (8)	12. S'ivabeļļi grāma (120) See below
W	9. Nirmārga grāma Ambaratāya, Sambaratāya, Indravaļļitāya, Kannāraņa, Kambaraņa, Irvanturāya, Ko- yaköditāya, Mittanadukatāya	 S'rīmantūru grāma Śrīmantūrāya, Śibarurāya, Munnūrāya, Mucchantāya, Madikuļāya, Sedikuļāya, Asurapeņņāya (7) 	11. Tenakaļa grāma Monenāya, Mittantāya, Madumannāya, Vailāya, Kācantāya, Barkanņā- ditāya, Barkanņā-	12. S'ivabelli grāma (120) See below

Otambulitāya, Ugrambali. Uluru, Ungarapalli, Oram. Oramballi, Kairamballi, tāya, Ullurāya, Kaframballi, Kairamhalli, Alapāyi, Ungurapalli, Ullūra, Alapa, tāya, Aliya, Astamūrtitāya, Astamūrti, Hebbāra, Samblāja Astamūrti, Hebbāra, and the Hebbāra, Sabojetāya (8)

14. Nilāvara grāma 14. Nirvāra grāma 14. Iviravara ķīumu Nāritāya, Kallurāya, Edavat Nāritāya, Yadabeţṭanāya, Leaf in the Ms. torn...ya... ṭināya, Annitāya, Tumbekal- Kallūrāya, Tumbikalāya, Heb- Edebeṭṭināya, Kallūrāya, Mak-lāya, Hebbāra, Mad lhyastha, bāra, Nūjiṇṇāya, Makkitāya, kitāya, Tumbillāya, Hebbāra,

Hande, Bāsiri, Tunga, Nā-Hande, Bāsari, Tunga, Nā-Tunga, Kāranta, Hēraļa vada, Hoļļa, Mayya, Hebbāra, vada, Hoļļa, Mayya, Hebbāra, Hande, Bāsiri, Nāvuda, idakke Kāranta, Kāranta, Kāranta, Rarvavanta (8) 16. Kūta grāma 15. Kūta grāma 15. Kōta grāma

(Total?)

tative Anna Kāranta, Maiyya's rapresentative Anna Hērala

16. Kandāvara grāma Udupa, Hebbāra (2)

16. Skandapara grāma Same as in M

16. Skandapura grāma Same as in M See above No. 4.
17. (O)mañjūru grāma Mādantillāya (1)

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M	В	d
1. S'rīpādi grāma Kuñjamaṇṇāya, Kauḍamba- Kuñjamaṇṇāy ḍitāya, Pāṅgaṇṇāya, Atrāḍi- Putraṇṇāya (4) tāya, Baṅpāḍitāya (5)	āma 1a, Vaipāģitāya,	1. S'ripādi grāma Kuñjamaņņāya, Koņdapādi- tāya, Baipāditāya, Atrāditāya, Pāngaņņāya (5)
2. Vaģilu grāma Aļavaņņāya, Puļintāya (2)	2. Oģi <i>la grāma</i> Āļumaņņāya, Uļipoģitāya (2)	. Odila grāma Āļumaņņāya, Uļipoditāya (2) Ambuļļamaņņāya, Pulikodi- tāya (2)
3. <i>Nāļa grāma</i> Paģuvantāya, Malepāģitāya (2)		3. Nāļe grāma Madipāditāya,Parvantāya(2) Same as in B but read for the second Maduvantāya (2)
4. Karandūru grāma Capagetāya, Pannetāya (2)	4. Kārandūru grāma Sampagenāya, Edakelatāya (2)	4. <i>Kārandūru grāma</i> Same as in B
5. <i>Ujjari grāmā</i> Vappantāya, Arimanitāya,	5. Ujjire grāma Armanetāya, Vappantāva, Same as in B	5. Ujjirya ārāma Same as in B

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6. Kunyamārga grāma Peralātāya, Kunnimārgen- tāya (ivu iraļu sandeha) Pera- (eraļu sandeha) Pera- ditāya, Upparaṇṇāya Icaltāya, Itaṅtāya, Maḍavināya, Kudu- ṇṇāya, Putayatāya, Koḍañci- nāya, Karakaṇṇāya (9)	7. Kekkada grāma Same as in B but read for the 1st Tēdilāya, and add Nūditāya (5)	8. Rāmiñja grāma Same as in B but for the 1st read Nūratāya (3). The word Bhaţţa is added here.	9. Pude grāma Pudenāya (1)	10. Baļļā grāma Same as in B but read for the 2nd Uccaraņņāya
6. Kuñjamārga grāma Puratāya, Kuĥjamārgatāya, Peraļatāya, Kunnimārgen-Peraļātāya, Kuĥjamārgatāya (grha eradu onaē) Perāditāya, tāya (ivu iradu sandeha) Pera- (eradu sandeha) Peradetāya, Muccintāya, Aļķitāya, Maduvi- ditāya, Upparaņņāya Icəltāya, Muccaṇṇāya, Yaccantāya, Managa, Kundaṇṇāya, Korangi- Itantāya, Madavināya, Kudu- davināya, Kudyaṇāya, Putrāya, nāya, Kakkaraṇṇāya (8)	7. Kokkada grāma Todilāya, Sabarāya, Yada- pāditāya, Upparaņņāya (4)	8. Rāmañja grāma avana Nūjitāya, Maṭatāya, Munnū- Parļa- rāya (3)	9. Pude grāma Pudināya (ubhaya grha 1)(1)	10. Beļapādi grāma Bāritāya, Ummaraņņāya, Same as in B but Ammaņi (gṛha 1 saṃŝaya) (3) the 2nd Uccaraṇṇāya
6. Kuñjamārga grāma Puratāya, Kuñjamārgatāya, (grha eradu onaē) Perāditāya, Muccintāya, Alkitāya, Maduvi- nāya, Kundaņņāya, Korangi- nāya, Kakkaraņņāya (8)	7. Kokkaja grāma Idepāditāya, Sabarāya, Up. pārana, Koditillāya (4)	8. Rāmiñja grāma Nōritāya, Mattināya, avana pratinidhi Teñjitāya, Parļa- tāya (4)	9. Pude grāma Pudināya, Ametōḍitāya, Pa- rajatāya, Illaḍitāya (4)	10. Baļpa grāma Bāritāya, Ummāņitāya, Am- māņitāya (3)

2. ŠIVAĻĻI GRĀMA (CALLED IN ALL VERSIONS ŠIVABELLI)

The main regulation the Sivalli grāma is thus given in P:—modalu hattu nadu nalvattu kade eppattu hattarakūde hadimūru nalvattaralli nālku yeppattaralli ondu antu śreṣṭha gṛha hadinentu.

In B the same is given thus:-

modalu hattu nadu nalvattu kade ippattu hattaralli hadinaidu nalvattaralli nālku ippattaralli ondu antu śrestha grha ippattu.

In P it means thus in English:—" The first ten-middle forty-the last seventy-with three added to the first ten, four out of forty, and one out of seventy, these eighteen house-holds are the best".

In B the same reads thus in English:—" The first tenmiddle forty-the last twenty. With live added to the first ten, and four out of forty, and one out of twenty-these twenty households are the best".

The following regulation is common to both the versions P & B:-

nalvattaralli mūvattāru madhyama bhōjana pratibhōjana mātra eppattaralli arvattombattu tantu mūtra ardha brāhmaru. (Out of forty thirty-six are middling Brahmans, while sixty out of seventy are Brahmans only in name, i. e., tantu mātra brāhmaru.)

N. B. Neither the main regulation nor its subsdiary can be seen in M. And in both P & M ippattu is sometimes written by the scribe for eppattu.

The first ten households

M	В	ď
1. Alevūru grāma	1. Alevūru grāma	1. Alevūru grāma
Alevūrāya, Kodancatāya, Alevūrāya, Kodenca, Manji- Madipuļitāya, Manjatāya, Sa- tāya, Saralāya, Kadambaļitāya rajāya, Kuttubuļitāya (6)	Alevūrāya, Kodenca, Mañji- tāya, Saraļāya, Kadambaļitāya (6)	Same as in B
2. Sagari grāma	2. Sagari grāma	2. Saguri grāma
Sagaritāya, Tenkillāya, Nad- vantillāya, Kunjitāya (4)	Sagaritāya, Tenkillāya, Nad- Same as in M but read for the last Kunjatāya hitillāya, Kunjitāya (4)	Same as in M but read for the last Kuñjatāya
3. Putturāya, Bāyiri, Kēkode (3) Their representatives: Alevurāya's brother Kedilāya, Kaţţukaţţatāya, Kodañca's bro- ther Kojatāya (3) (These are the additions)		

All the three versions are agreed on the following four households being the best (\$restha):—

Baṇṇiñjetāya, Korenāya or Kornāya, Maraditāya, and Sivatāya. (But M however adds two households in the Muñjūru grāma-Mañjurāya and one household in the Kuñjūru grāma-Kuñjurāya, to the above list).

We give here only the account as found in P, since it is the clearest of all the three.

The 4 best households as given in P are the following:-

Baṇṇiñjetāya, Korenāya, Maraḍitāya, and Śivatāya. From M we know that Baṇṇiñjetāya belonged to the Baṇṇiñje grāma, Korenāya to Indravaļļi, Maraḍitāya to Ciṭṭupādi, and Śivatāya to Śivaḷḷi grāma.

The rest of the 36 households as given thus in P & B:-

Kramadhāretāya, Kekoḍināya (Teṅkoḍināya in B), Kāntārantāya, Sittilāya, Aruļitāya, Karambaļitāya Paḍilāya, Nīḍilāya, Kaṇṇappināya, Makkittāya (Maṅkitāya in B), Kaḍoḍināya (Koṭṭilaḍināya in B), Koḍalāya, Parkaļatāya, Arimetāya, Koļambetāya (Koleketāya in B), Kokkoḍināya (Kakkāḍināya in B), (Kallyaṭṭināya Kalaṭināya in B), Maṇikalatāya, Antillāya (Aṅkilāya in B), Mūḍetāya (Mūḍitāya in B), Pādetāya, Tōṭantillāya (Kōṭantillāya in B), Kunyamārgantāya, Kaṇṇarāya (Kaṇṇūraya in B), Keļaturāya, Maṇpannitāya, (Maṇṇinnitāya in B), Nēyampllitāya, Baḍikillāya, Kalyāṇantāya, Nūjitāys, Koḍapalitāya, Nekkārantāya, Vakkināya (Vatināya in B), Simburattāya, Iļanturāya (Politāya in B), (B adds Pudināya to the above list.). P. gives them as \$aṭ-karmi niyataru. But B. gives them as trikarmis.

M. also styles them as tri-karmis but supplies the following additional information:—

Baṇṇiñje grāma:—the best household is that of Baṇṇiñjetāya. Its disciples (śiṣyaru) are the following:-Kramadhāntāya, Tenkoditāya, Kāntarantāya, Sittilāya, Kambolitāya Nūjitāya, Kalyānantāya, Kadillāya.

Indravalli grama:-Korenaya is the best household.

Its disciples are the following:-Kodepolitāya, Polinnāya, Nekkarantāya, Šimbarantāya, Padillāya, Nedillāya, Kannapitāya, Makkināya, Pakkimanāya.

Ciţtupādi grāma:-Maraditāya is the best household.

Its disciples are the following:-Kōṭōpitāya, Koḍalāya, Pārkaļantāya, Arimetāya, Kallyaṭṭitāya, Māṇilatāya, Kuttiguļināya, Kukkōḍitāya, Yellyantitāya.

Šivalli grāma: Sivatāya is the best household. Its disciples are the following: Mūdetāya, Pāditāya, Kōṭantilāya, Kuditamārgantāya, Kaṇṇāraya, Kalatratāya, Monolitāya, Nēpāditāya, Madirāya.

3. 70 HOUSEHOLDS IN THE THREE VERSIONS

Version M gives the following:-

Manjūru grāma:—Manjūrāya and Mādantillāya are the best households. Kunjūru grāma:—Kunjūrāya is the best household. Its disciples:—Kangināya, Mittilāya, Badkilāya, Kukkilāya, Pānejetāya, Kalambināya, Sunnantāya, Oltāya, Ninjūrāya, Nellitāya, Māllyantāya, Balatāya. These 12 households can inter-dine.

Hebbāra, Belļyatāya, Toņitāya, Karkatetāya, Manolitāya, Nurgetāya, Vadvapāditāya, Elikudātāya, Ubolitāya, Cchakerāya, Gangalantāya, Boritāya, Mūdacadutāya, Todināya, Boliyāya, Arcitāya, Kuvallāya, Gadairāya, Toādítāya, Kuddurāya, Kodantāya, Deyyangināya, Survatāya, Arkitāya, Nūjināya, Kadancitāya, Kannatāya, Kalitāya, Mādāditāya, Doņitāya, Putyetāya, Mudematāya, Ujjiriyatāya, Akotihebbāra, Ānetāya, Nakkantāya, Kallolitāya, Nijagopitāya, Kāyeritāya, Appuccitāya, Maipāditāya, Kotirāya, Bolillāya, Nadinnāya, Mēladitāya, Permudetāya, Koļavetāya, Macillāya, Iretāya, Perlāya. These are Brahmans only in name

(tantu mātra Brāhmaṇaru). They are king's servants (rāja kinkararu). They are entitled to the privilege of dining in the same line with other (pankti bhōjana mātra prati bhōjana villa). They are not entitled to the privilege of pājā samparka, etc., for having intermarried with the Brahmans who had been condemned by Paraśurāma.

Version P and B give the following:-

Version P says that Kunjuraya is the best household. It enumerates the 70 households in the following order:--

Kangināva (Taggināva in B), Mittilāva, Kunjalāva (Kuttilava in B), Penambe (Pananji in B), Sunnantaya, Kalambi, (Ulitāya is given here in B.), Ninjurāva, Nellitāya, Mallyatāva (Mallyantāva in B), Hebbapa, Bellavatti (Belapati in B), Bellyarāya (Belayarāya in B), Tonitāya, Karkatatāva, Nānilatāva, Durge, Vādpe (Vadetāva in B), Pādi, Ubbali, Cakkerāva, Mangalantāva (Mangalatāva in B), (Võritāva is added here in B), Mandaca (Mandabettāva in B), Adukatāva, Todi (Kodilāva in B), Yelikodi, Goli (Kulitāva in B), Ruvallāva (not found in B), Annappi, Gudde (Gūde in B), Denge (Devigināya in B), (Kodilāya is given here in B), Kundantāya, Kudurāya, Areya, Kuditāva, Surya, Nūji, Kodambe, (Kodanji in B), Kannapalli, Mundādi, Doni, Pudumale (Mudumale in B), Puttya (Putive in B), Uiare, Akkuti (Kokkodi in B), Hebbara, Nakkatte, Āne, Kalvāli, Agali, Mukke, Nijamkopi (Nijikośi), Irvatturāya, Āpucce, (Āpiye in B), Maipādibettināya (Maipādi Bevināya in B), Kottināya (Kovināya in B), Kudurāva. Kolambe (Kolanji in B), (Kalaya is added here in B), Jogimajalāya (Majalāya in B), Todināya, Iretāya, Perlāya, Kabekodi (Kabetodi in B) Majjatāya (Manjitāya in B), and Pive (Beve in B).

B gives the following verse in connection with the above Brahmans.

pātitya anugatāh kecit kecit prācīna Tauļavāh I Rāma saptā dvijā kecit Brāhmaņāh tantumātrakāh N

(Some were fallen: some were the ancient Taulavas; and some others were those who had been condemned by Rāma [Jāmadagnya]. These were Brahmans only in name).

4. THE BRAHMANS OF SIVALLI GRĀMA AND ITS NEIGHBOURHOOD (?)

Only version P gives the following interesting details about the Brahmans of the Sivalli grama:—

Šivabeļļi grāma 300 (S'ivabeļļi grāmada Brāhmara 300 idakke vīvara).

Alevūru emba betṭinalli vivara 400 (?) (This passage unfortunately has been left out while transcribing from the original).

Tenkanūra vivara (100 in the southern locality) Kallamanja, Manjatabeţţu, Kadambulabeţţu, Kodangala, Mandarādi—idu tenka nūra vivara.

Paramballi Kakkunje Nujitabettu-antu ainurara vivara.

Nadu munnūrara virara Banniñja, Kadapādi, Paduvu, Pādigāra.

Udupi nūrara vivara Saguri Manki Bundnāru antu nūru. Padumunnūrara vivara Kodavūru, Arkalabettu. Behugale idu munnūru.

Muḍamunnūrara vivara Heraga, Pārkaļa, Kuḍigrāma. Perṇankilu antu munnūru.

Muḍanānnūrara vivara Ciţṭupāḍi, Kemmuttūru, Māyarpāḍi, Bailūru antu nānūru.

Padunānnūrara vivara Nidumbūru, Kannarapādi, Kēdūru, Niţtūru, Puttūru, Nēyambaļļi antu mūru sāvira.

Thus from the above it appears that in and around Sivalli there were three thousand Brahman households, thereby justifying to some extent the remarkable popularity of Udipi as a centre of pious and learned men in early days.

5. HOUSEHOLDS DIVIDED ACCORDING TO PROFESSION	(M styles them as Ekādaśi viniyogadavaru)
HOUSE	લ
'n.	

Agnihotri Jana

Management and a company comment of deligning particles of the particles o	<u>a</u>	Alevūrāya, Simantūrāya, Mu-Simantūrāya, Mucantūrāya, Same as in B but without cchantāya, Munnūrāya, Ku-Munnūrāya, Alevūrāya, Koḍañ-Saralaya, Udupa, and Brahma-dañca, (Madipalitāya), Mañja-ca, Mañjetāya, Saralāya, Ma-kāranta.
	В	Simantūrāya, Mucantūrāya Munnūrāya, Alevūrāya, Kodañ ca, Mañjetāya, Saralāya, Ma dipalitāya, Kadambalitāya,
The second secon	M	Alevūrāya, Simantūrāya, Mu-Simantūrāya, Mucantūrāya, Same a cchantāya, Munnūrāya, Ku-Munnūrāya, Alevūrāya, Kodan-Saralaya, danca, (Madipalitāya), Manja-ca, Manjetāya, Saralāya, Ma-kārantatāya, Kunijtāyā, Nadvantilāya, dipalitāva, Kadambalitāva

Sagaritāya, Tenkilāya, Kadam- Kuñjitāya, Nadvantilāya, Sabalitāya, Kekode, Korenāya, guritāya, Tenkilāya, Putrāya. Banniñjetāya, Maraditāya, Si- Tekudenāya, Bāyiritāya, Kavatāya, Lidepāditāya, Pāngan- llurāya, Baipāditāya, Vappantāya, Idepāditāya, Koranāya, Maraditāya, Udupa, Brahmatāya (26, the additions being kāranta, Banninjetāya, Sive-Brahmakāranta and Udupa). vatāya, Idepāditāya, Pāngan-nāya, Udupa, Iritāya, Kunju-rāya, Mittantāya, Śarajāya (24)

Smārthas

tāya, Tājantrāya, Ayyapināya, the 2nd, 4th, and 13th Kide-Cchampagetāya, Malepāditāya, Mannakalatāya, Alevūrāya, Bra-kināya, Tāļatāya and Mudam-Kallurāya, Udupa, Baipāditāya, hmakāranta, Kallūrāya, Udupa, pāditāya (13)
Alevūrāya, Mudapāditāya, Kō-Baipāditāya, Korngināya, Korngināya, ringināya, Brahmakāranta (14) Muņdapāditāya, Kodañ-ca (14) Same as in B but read for Nūjitāya, Kidenāya, Nāraļa-Tāļetāya, Nāraļatāya, Aryappināya, Kikidenāya, Nūritāya,

Bhattas

nnāya, Mahjatāya, Baipādi nāya, Peranņāya, Koyamege, the 3rd, 7th, 8th, 11th, 14th, tāya, Rijetāya Pārurāya, Ind- tāya, Kudurāya, Majjitāya, 16th, 33rd, 37th, 38th, 39th ravalitāya, Mucchantāya, Siri- Tā etāya, Pijitāya, Pāturāya, and 40th Koṭṭināya, Mañjatāya, Tātrāļatāya, Indravaļi-tāya, Muccantāya, Mittontāya, Sabarāya, Putrāya, Bayiritāya Same as in B but read for and Kekudenava respectively Tā etāya, Pijitāya, Pāturāya, Induva litāya, Koyakodanāya, Sīmantūrāya, Puncanāya, Mutāya, Alevūrāya, Tunga, Brah. Munnurāya, Arināya, Kōvicanturaya, Mogeraya, Mitranmakāranta, Kallurāya, Udupa, tāditāya, Śambarāya, Koļatāya, Baipāditāya, Atrāļitāya, Appa-ntāditāya, Beļannāya, Arema Uparannāya, Korgināya Ame-Mudampāditāya, Bajitāya, Ko. rnāya, Saguritāva. Madantilāva, netāya, Idapāditāva, Sabarāya, Pāturāva (40) Arimanetāya, Idepāditāya, Sa-ralāya, Sabarāya, Upāraņa, manturāya, Kodenāya, Badiko-ļatāya, Kunjatāya, Maduvilāya, Bāyiritāya, Kēkode, Kori-nnāya, Banninjetāya, Maradi nāya, Kudanca, Kallurāya, Brahmakāranta, Munnurāya, Alevūrāya, Pera-Udupa, Vappantāya, Nūritāya, Bajetāya, Paralatāya, Kenkitāya, Sivatāya, Nadvantilāya, Irvatturāya, Mūdampāditāya, Kambolitāva (40) \geq Mogerāya,

Tantris

Same as in B but without Pangannaya, Udupa, Brahma-the last two. And the 1st is called Netrataya Nētratāya, Icalatāya, Putrāya, kāranta (6) Icalatāya, Nētratāya, Pāngannāya, Putturāya (4)

Panditas

Same as in B Kallurāya, Upparaņņāya (2) | Vappantāya, Pijetāya, (2)

Paksanāthas

Mūdilāya, Nidumbūrāya (2) | Nūdilāya, Nidubūrāya (2) | Omitted in P

Ballāļas

Talepāditāya, Manjunodi. Talepādi, Manjanodi. Nidu- Same as in B but all are styled fayas. tāya, Kunjimannaya, Kodam - mbūru, Mudila (4) hāditāya (4)

Grāmanis

Kidekidenāya, Sulyaņnāya, Pāturāya, Poyyatāya, Sulļa-Pārurāya, Poyyatāya, Gulļ-Kōţikunjetāya, Kamōţi, Srima-nnāya, Kikidenāya, Koţţi-ntūāya, Ambarantāya, Madu-tāya, Tennarāya, Kaṇṇaran-nāya, Innirāya, Kaṇṇāraṇṇa, maṇṇāya, Nadvantilāya, Nari-nāya, Mādantilāya, Nadvantilāya, Nadvantilāya, Lāya, Udupa, Atrāḍtitāya, Cam-lāyā, Kunjitāya, Hēraļa, Kā-Kunjatāya, Hēraļa, Kāriata, pagetāya, Kudavannāya, Ide-ranta, Nāritāya, Idabettināya, Nāritāya, Idebettināya, Heb-pidātāya, Arimanetāya, Pudi-Hebbāra, Sampigetāya, (in Ni-bāra, Sampagetāya (in Nilānnāya, Manikalatāya, Nūri-rāvara), Ambarannāya, Ara-vara), Ambarannāya Armanetāya, Edevaţiināya, Mittan-manetāya, Māḍappināya, Put-tāya, Maḍappināya, Putratāya, Mūdampāditāva, Parla- rannāya, Kakarannāya, Kina- nāya, Kakkaranna, Okalatāya, tāya (22)

Adhivāsis

d	Aripāditāya, Maduvinnāya, Alevūrāya, Paganpināya, Tā- Alevūrāya, Pāngappināya, Kannāraditāya, Arbitāya, Ko- retāya, Annakuhjitāya, Bāša- Kāretāya, Kannakuhjatāya, dvaţtirāya, Aggitāya, Depuje- kannāya, Kedaṭtrāya, Arbitāya, Bārikunāya, Kedaṭerāya, Kannarāditāya, Bārikunāya, Parikatāya, Tōditāya, Kabekottāya, Bāri- Kambarannāya. Uļiyārāya ka- tāya, Pañjikannāya, Rudurāya, Kannarāditāya, Poyyatāya, 1ōdillāya, bekodināya, Malāmpāditāya, Kuñjurāya (12) Erinkatāya, Bartoditāya, Puñ- jukannāya, Kudurāya, Ninju- rāya, Jatoditaya, Nambunit- tāya, Jatoditaya (21)	Jannis Madikudilāva, Sidikudilāva,Kudulāva Sesikalatāva
9	Alevurāya, Paganpināya, Tāretāya, Annakuhjitāya, Basakannāya, Kedatirāya, Arbirāya, Pelāditāya, Kannarāditāya, Kambarannāya. Uliyārāya Kabekodināya, Malāmpāditāya, Erinkatāya, Bartoditāya, Puñjukannāya, Kudurāya, Ninjurāya, Iravattūrāya. Nambunitāya, Jātōditāya.	
Μ.	Aripāditāya, Maduvinnāya, Alevūrāya, Paganpināya, Tā- Alevūrāya, Kannāraditāya, Arbitāya, Ko- retāya, Annakunjitāya, Bāsa- Kāretāya, K dvattirāya, Aggitāya, Depuje- kannāya, Kedatirāya, Arbirāya, Bārikuņnāya, K annarāditāya, Par Balļulļāya, Gañjitāya, Bāri- Kambarannāya. Uļiyārāya Ka- tāya, Panjikann tāya, Poyyatāya, 1 ōdillāya, bekodināya, Malāmpāditāya, Kuñjurāya (12) Cilannāya, Mittadkatāya (16) Erinkatāya, Bartoditāya, Puñ- jukannāya, Kudurāya, Ninjurāya (21)	Śedikullāya, Madikullāya,

kkodatāya, Aripatāya, Toditil-.....Nuuuaya, Ocsinajataya, Mādumaņņāya, Kācukunīja, Vailāya, Mañjatāya, Kemmuņ kodināya, Hebbāra, Ungu...la, Kemmundenāya, Vodambādi danāya, Odampāditāya, Kabe-Edebettināya, Edekallāya, Kotillāya, Bābetilāya, Madilāya, lāya, Bābetillāya, Mūdillāya, Tengyāyi. Amarna. Pudenāya, Urala, Kuduretāya, Māthantāya, Bāryetāya, Kuntarāya, Maratāya, Amaņ- tāya, Pudenāya, tāya, Tinakalatāya, Madumaņnāya, Kāpuñjāya, Vailāya, Manjitāya, Ugraballi- tāya, Kabetodināya, Hebbāra, Edabettināya, Urāļa, Kuduretāya, Teñjitāya, K.kodenaya, Raipataya, Kodi-Bāyatāya, Ungurapa Hi, Pudenāya, Pulintāya, Sadanga, nāya, tāya, Idevettināya, Idekallāya, tāya, Madampāditāya, Male-Mittantaya, Vailaya, Kunjatāya, Mañjatāya, Kemunde. Koyakoditāya, Ullirāya, Mūdi-Sannadka. tāya, Kaņņārāya, Kambāraņa, tāya, Kuņikudalāya, Anantodipāditāya, Hebbāra, llāya, Maţţināya,

Mayya, Padatāya, Okunāya, rannāya, Ulitāya, Paddilāya, rannāya, Hulitāya, Ēdepuyya-Ammaņitāya, Kambalitodi- Edepulitāya, Urāya, Paddilāya, tāya, Puļa, Padpillāya, Irakatatāya, Arimaņitāya, Pellikari- Irekaditāya, Ponetāya, Udupa, tāya, Ponetāya, (38) tāya, Ponnetāya, Mādintilāya, Heraļa (38) Mūsevāsitāya (38) Irekațiutăya, Pădităya, Holla, Mulatăya, Arduņdāya, Amba-Mūlatāya, Aduņdatāya, Amba-

aidu mole dana I, tappi banda gōvu I, keggoda I, jōdu mara I, kūpa I, kulā-ŝrunkhala, manakāle S'ranga vādya I, nada mudi I, pakṣākvāṭa I, makara tōraṇa I, dīpa mālā-sthambha I, B gives the following as the maryade or usage of the Jannis: -affa murida akki I, doļamañji I, keṭṭu eddu baṅda heṇṇu I, ratna kaṃbaḷi I, $\, c$ chatra I,-these sixteen kaṭṭaḷes or regulations are said to have been established by Lokāditya Rāya.

M mentions these regulations for all, i. e., those who made up the 10 viniyogas, but not for the adhivasis. We have described these in an earlier connection. Ch. IV. Sec. 1.)

P also mentions these regualtions which we have likewise described in Ch. IV.

Dhoregalu (Nobles)

This list is given only in B:--

Kunda Heggade, Muda Heggade Māramba Heggade, Bidireśva Vōmañjuru, Rāmanātha, Bōļada Déśingatāya, nūrāru mandi Heggade, Ballāļaru. These dhores were only nine in number.

Sāvantūru (i. e., Sāvantas)

Given only by B. Iravattūru Basava Sāvanta, Mulki Kinnika Sāvanta (2)

	Nāḍus				
M	В	P			
Kela-nāḍu, Nalvatta- nāḍu (2)	Same as in M	Kola-nāḍu, Nalvatta- nāḍu (2)			
	Kõḍus				
Kāngōḍu, Kāsara- gōḍu (2)	Omitted in B	Kanjinōḍu, Kāsara- gōḍu (2)			
	Bīdus				
Baindūru, Bhaṭṭa- ka ļa (2)	Same as in B	Baidūru, Bhaṭṭakala (2)			
Divāna					
Kadari, Kārkaļa (2)	Same as in M	Same as in M			
	Dharmasthāna				
Cautaru, Bangaru(2)	Omitted in B	Same as in M			
	Simhāsanas				
Bārakūru, Manga- ļūru (2)	Same as in M	Bārakuru, Maṅga- kaḍaṁba (?) (2)			
	H oņesthāna				

Only M gives the two names—Kadare and Kāntāvara (2)

Gaḍi

Only M gives the gadis thus:—Sukti and Mukti (2)

Kare (boundary)

Only M gives the following: -Simhādri, Śarādhi (2)

Kūduva-kūta (Assembly centres)

Only M gives the following: - Kōṭa, Ananteśvara (2)

Vāda Kūta (Centres of Disputation)

Only M gives the following: - Sankaranārāyaņa.

S'aiva-Vaisnava meeting place

Only M gives the following:—Krōdamandala (op. cit. in Ch. IV.)

Smrtikāraru of the 32 Grāmas

Only M gives the following:—Munnūrāya, Alevurāya, Uppāraņa, Kallurāya, Tāļetāya, Udupa (7)

Rājasthāna

Only B gives the following:—Bārakūru, Maṅga jūru, Kadaba, Honnāyūru.

Cavadi

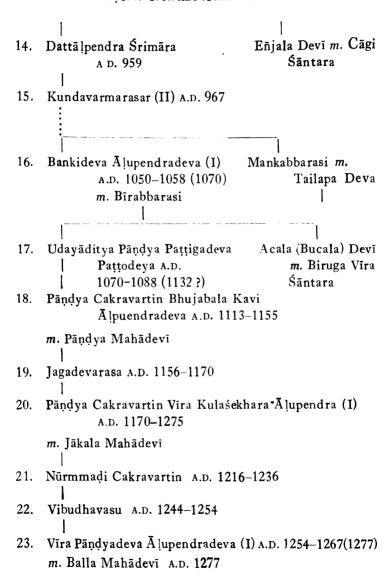
Ibid gives the following: - Kadari, Kārkaļa.

The same version B gives the following:—mannegaru Bhairava Bhārata maryādegalu Bārakūru hallarige modalu nōṭavemba maryāde hiḍihaccaḍa maryāde Kōṭeśvarakke bandalli Kandāvaru māḍuva sanmāna: Kelanāḍavaru hiḍiva siddhāyada suttige. (Some of these obsolete terms do not form intelligent matter. B. A. S.)

Appendix C

ĀĻUPA GENEALOGICAL TABLE

1. Aluv(k)a circa A.D. 450 2. Śrī Māramma Ālvarasar circa A.D. 575 Sakala Śrīmat Āluvarasar circa A.D. 600 3. Kundavarmarasar (I) circa A.D. 625 4. 5. Aluvarasar Gunasagara circa A.D. 650 6. Citravahana (I) A.D 675-700 7. Ranasagara circa A.D. 710-720 8. Svetavāhana circa A.D. 720-730 9. Prthvīsāgara Alupendra circa A.D. 730-750 Vijayāditya Māramma circa A.D. 750-770 10. 11. Citravāhana (II) A.D. 800 Kavi Vimalāditya (?) (Nṛpamallarāja) 12. 13. Alva Rananjaya A.D. 920-930



Nāgadevarasa A.D. 1292-1299
 m. Mocala Devī

- 25. Bankideva Alupendradeva (II) A.D. 1302-1315
- 26. Soyideva Alupendradeva A.D. 1315 1335...
- 27. Víra Kulašekharadeva (11) A.D. 1335 (?) 1345
- 28. Vīra Pāṇḍyadeva (II) A.D. 1346 1366
- 29. Kulaśekhara Alupendradeva (III) A.D. 1366 1384 (1397)
- 30. Vīra Fāṇdyadeva (IV) A.D. 1397 1436 (1441)
- 31. Vīra Kulašekharadeva (IV) A.D. 1441-1444

Unidentified Alupa Kings

- 1. Kulaśekhara Alupendra
- 2. Ālupa Kumāra Jayasingarasa

Minor Chieftains

- 1. Kāntanņa Mārāļuva alias Komņa A.D. 1405
- 2. Dēvannarasa alias Komņa A.D. 1524-1530
- 3. Mañjanna Komna Bhūpa (?)

INDEX

A Agastya, sage, 245, 247 Abhaya Candra Siddhänta, 411 Aghora Deva. 398 Aghora Šivācārya, 391 (n) Bāla Krsnānanda Abhinava Svāmi, a Smārtha guru, 455 Agniketu, prince, 347, 348 Abhinava Cārukīrti Pandita Agniruddha Kṛṣṇāṇanda Syāmi, a Ācārya, 411 Smārtha guru, 455, 4¹6 (n), 456 Abhinava Pampa, 357 Ahaira, the 8, n Abhinava Pāṇḍya Deva Odeya, Ahicchatra, 298, 299, 300, 325, 328, 330, 331, 331 (n), 332, 333, king, 243 Abhisāras, the, 40 334, 335, 335 (n), 351 Abyssinia, 351 (n) Ahavamalla Trailokvamalla, Acala (Būcala) Devi, princess, king, 31 229, 230, 231 Aibiśetti, 113 Acyutapreksa Ācārya, a Vaisņava Aihole-Meguti, 70 guru, 417, 418, 419, 420, 421 Aidūru, 169, 170 Acyuta Rāya, 19 Aikalabāvadākulu, 509 Adakanelliñjine, 461, 464 Aindalpatta, 518 Addadanda, 518 Ain-ul-Mutk Gilāni, 154 (n) Adeisaga, (Adisadra), Aiorum Regio (Ahi-desa) 61 same as Ahicchatra, 335 Aiyangar, S. K., scholar, 16 (n) Adhikāri Deva Āluva, 182, 284 374(n)Adhikāri Sadāsiva Aigal, 180 Ajapuri, see Brahmapura, 299 Adhirājamangala, 244 Ajila, prince, 349 Adhokşajatirtha, a Vaisnava guru, Ajjanna Sāhani, minister, 288 430, 433 Aladahalli, 292 Adinātha, 96 (n) Alampurkot, 335 Adi Parame'svara, 415 Alberuni, 56 (n) Adi Udipi, 105 Alevūrāva, 305 Adiyapa Setti, 178 Aliya Bankidevarasa, 126, 127, 148, 149, 151, 163, 169, 179, **184**, Adiyūr Santivarmā, chieftain, 191, 194, 360, 361 232 (n) Allappa Adhikāri, 241 Adondai Cakravartin, 54, 213-214 Altekar, A. S., scholar, 221 (n) Adūr (mod-Pāņdipura), 42, 76-77, 203 Alugurajupalle, 399 (n) Alupas, Aluvas, the, 58-60, 60 (n) Adūru Dere Baidva, 495, 507, 522,

526-529, 541, 574

61, 61 (n), 62, 62 (n), 63-64 (n),

Amarālava Kūdilu grāma, 424 66-69, 71, 78, 80, 90 (n), 91, 110, 121, 123, 136, 143, 145, 148, Amarasimha, author, 377, 382 (n) 151-152, 156-157, 162, 165-166, Amarāvāti, 43 170, 172, 174, 184-185, 187, 196-Ambadādi, village, 518 199, 201 (n) 202, 202 (n), 203-Ambadādi Panjurli, a bhūta, 534 204, 220, 222, 224-225, 228, 232-Amba Ksitīśa, 365 233, 238-239, 244, 247-249, 255, Ambātirtha, 425, 426 257, 258 (n), 260, 260 (n), 261, Ammana Deva, king, 228 266, 268-270, 275, 277, 280, 281-Amma, Yādava king, 436 283, 285 (n), 288 (n), 292, 347 Amoghavarsa II, king, 393 (n), 350 (n), 353, 354, 358, 358, Anandatīrtha, see Madhvācārva, 401, 415 the reformer Alupa Kumāra Pāndya, Jaya-Ananta, 481 Singarasa, 155, 156, 157, 162, Anantanna Marakala, 487 381 Andāsara, 117 Alurkheda, 221 (n) Andhra (country) 246, 278 I), Āluva-arasar (Citravāhana Andhras, the 198 208, 210 Anegundi, 574 Aļuva Daņņāyaka, 286 (n) Anekallāvu, 515 Āluva Kötti, Setti, 154 (n) Ankeya Nāyaka, commander, 292 Mahāprabha Tavanidhi Angaravarmā, prince, 347, 350 (n) Brahmā Gauda, 295 (n) Angupesāra Polegan, 86 Alvanād, 233 (n) Annadāta Heggade, 136, 169, 184 Aluva Nāvaka, 281 Annappa, a bhūta, 373 Aļuva Nārayaņa Šeţţi, 154 (n) Annapa Odeyar, viceroy, 337, 353 Āluva Pāndi Setti, 154 (n) Anna Hebbāruva, 289 Aluva Sankeya Nāyaka, 255, 257 Anna Herala, 305 Alva, chief of the Alvadi 600, Anna Kāranta, 305 63 (n) Anna Kunja, 305 Alva, see Bankideva Alupendra-Anna Mañjanodi, 305 deva I, 229, 231 Āņņa Mittanodi, 305 Alvādi Six Hundred, 63 (n), 64 Anna Oramballi, 305 (n) Alvakheda (Aluvakheda) Six Anna Ugramballi, 305 Thousand province, 9, 56, 58, Anola, 335 58 (n), 63, 64, 65, 78, 84, 85, 93, Anūpas, the, 197, 198 (n) 98, 200, 20, 220, 221 (n), 224, Anūpadeśa, 207 233 (n). 238, 269, 270, 275, 276, Aparānta, 198 277, 280 Arabs, the 324 (n), 482 Alva Ranarjaya, king, 93, 228, Arabi, 370 229, 232 (n), 390 Arabia, 408, 409

Araga Eighteen Kampana, 295 (n) В 364 Bābu Byāri, 463 Arakīrti, 223 (n) Babbara Bāba, cheftain, 268 (n) Aralaiyan, 112, 113 (n), 116, 118 Babbu, see Kodadabbu Arasubante, 509 Babbukuduru, 17, n. Bādarāyaņa, Psi, 418, 421, 423 Arekalla, 184 Arhat, 344 (n), 405 Bācana Odeya, Rāya, 35, 180 Āridara Poleyamma, 221, 221 (n) Bādāmi, 23, 201 (n) Badarikāśrama, 420, 422, 423, Arikesari Asamasamam Māra-426, 435 varmā, king, 215 Arikesarivarman Parankuśa Mā-Baddadāsa, Bappadāsa, chiefravarman, king, 215, 215 (n), tain,, 348, 352, 375, 376, 376 (n) 216 (n), 217 (n), 219 Badeberamuni, 517 Ariora, 335 (n) Bāgavāļu, 362 Aritodu, 21 Bāgivāla, 292 Āriya (Ārya) Ayceuņḍa, 225 Bāgiyabbe, 267 Arijanāpura, 153 Bagga, 514 Arjuna, hero, 42, 42!(n), 43, 43 (n) Baiderlu, bhūt 18, 373 560 Baila Bākuda, 475 Arsiyakere tāluka, 292 Bailūru, 283, 288, 289, 379 (n) Arubattuvūvantirumadam, 398 Baindūru, (Baidūra), 340, 349 Ārvanād, 326 (n) Bairapura, 112 Āryāvarta, 395, 409 Bākenenges, the, 194 Asandinād, 108 (n) Bākimār, 474 Aśoka, Emperor, 9, 47, 51 (n), Bākaders (Bākuders), the, 461, 464, 501, 506 374, 375 (n) Aśvatthāma, hero, 18, 329 Bālacandra Sikhāmaņi, 94, 95 (n), 401 Atka (Adka), 520 Bālakṛṣṇānanda Svāmi, a Smartha Attāvara, 141 guru, 455 Attūru guttu, 509 Balapa (Belapa, Ballamañje). 302 Aufrecht, scholar, 393 (n), 394 (n) Balātkāragaņa, 243, 243 (n), 415 Boddhisattva. Avalokiteśvara, Balavarmā, king, 344 (n) 383, 384 (n) Bālchittalu, 7 Avici, 382 (n) Bālehonnūr, 258 Avidheya, king, 44 (n) Bali, race, the, 17, 18 Avimukta, 447 Ballala Camūpa, Ballu, Vallu, Ay chiefs, 245 General, 276 (n) Aygal, scholar, 376 (n) 459 (n) Ballāļa of Edambūru, 467, 473, Aykkudi, 245 474 (n), 499, 502, 513, 515, 522, Ayodhyä, 371 (n)

525, 526 (n), 529, 533, 538, 563, Bankideva Alupendradeva 577, 578, 579 Ballāla of Kukvāli, 541 Ballāla of Mardāļ, 465, 466, 492, 527, 539, 540, 542, 573, 578, 582 Ballāļa of Pañja, 467, 499, 501, 503, 506, 512, 532, 534, 566, 567, 595 Ballāļa of Parimaļe, 463, 469, 470. 471, 474, 474 (n), 485, 488, 491, 493, 498, 500, 504, 516, 524, 526 (n), 529, 536, 565, 566, 569, 576, 579 Balla Mahādevī, queen. 128, 130. 163, 180, 359, 380 Ballāla Rāva (Deva) I, king 234. 240, 242, 268, 269, 410, 411, 412 (n) Ballamañie, 6, 370 Ballavarasa, 204 Ballaveggade, 126, 127 Balligave, 383 Bāloļi principality, 519 Balu, 529 Bammadeva, Alupa prince, 194, 360, 361 Bāna, author, 14 Bānas, the, 251 Vanyāsi. Banavāsi, Banvase. Banavasenād, 51 (n), 56 (n), 64-67, 71, 79 (n), 114 (n), 118, 198-199, 203-204, 207, 210, 220-221 (n), 22³, 228, 254-55, 285, 325-326, 331, 333, 350 (n), 488 Bangkok, 55 (n) Banga, Bangar, chiftain, 304, 306, 349, 459, 464 Bangalore, 47 (n) Bankideva Ālupendradeva I, 96-99, 167, 173, 179, 212, 214, 228, 229, 231, 232, 268

king 131-135, 138, 150, 156, 162, 174, 190, 283, 4**0**3, 440 Banki Senabova, 136, 169, 184 Bankoja, 267 Banniñje, 102, 105, 340 Bantra, 252 Bantväl, 44 (n) Bappanādu, 7, 320 Bappura, family, 17, 18 Baradavali, 285 Bāraka, 172 (n) Bārakāntupura, 135 Bārakūru Bārakanūru, Fakanūr, Bārahakanyāpura, 31, 56, 65, 93, 96, 107, 109, 114, 126-130, 134-136, 145, 163, 167, 172-173 (n), 174-175, 179, 180-182, 184, 206, 212, 225-227, 233, 236-239, 243, 261, 272, 275-276, 280, 283, 288, 292-295, 297-300 (n), 309, 336-339, 341, 344, 344 (n), 345, 347, 347 (n), 348-349, 351-355 (n), 357, 359-360, 388-390 (n), 4'2-403, 407, 414-415, 440, 518, 530, 535, 538 Bārakanūr Ghat, 275, 276, 278 Bāranāsi, Varanāsi, (Benares), Kāśi, 90 (n), 137, 189, 190-1,

II.

321, 322, 323, 387, 388, 4**18**, 423, 455 (n) Barbara, 28 Barbosa, Duarte, 14 Bareilly, 335 Barios, the 54 Barma, citizen, 506 Barma Deva, Barmarasa, king, 254, 254 (n) Barmma Deva, prince, 229 Barmarasa Dannāyaka, 114 (n) Baroda, 38

Basaruru (Basurepura), Barcelore	Bhadrāsamudra, 456
54, 54 (n). 104, 105, 108, 119,	Bhagavata-aradhya, 451 (n) 452(n)
130, 131, 440	Bhāgavata Sāmpradāya, 449, 450,
Basava Deva, chieftain, 280	451, 452 (n)
Basti-	Bhaira, king. 365
Ammanavaru, 143,	Bhairarasa family, 147 (n)
Anantanātha, 153, 154, 413	Bhairava, prince, 365
Dharmādhikari, 415 (n)	Bhairavendra, prince, 365
Gurugala, Guru, 182, 240, 282. 283, 407	Bhandarkar, D. R., scholar, 390 (n), 450 (n)
Nemīśvara, 99, 100, 119, 121,	Bhandarkar, Sir R. G., scholar,
134, 138, 413	428, 429, 429 (n), 430, 433 (n),
Pārśvanātha, 414	442, 450 (n)
Battamarasa, 225 (n)	Bhaṇḍāri, 351
Bāva, 233 (n)	Bhandigade, 452, 453
Bayalnād, 269, 269 (n)	Bhānukīrti Maladhāri Deva,
Belarje, 447	Jaina guru, 241
Belgali, 233 (n)	Bhavasvāmi, 251
Belgaum, 433 (n)	Bharata, 12, 404
Belgola, 490, 494, 520, 523	Bhāratatīrtha Šrīpāda, Saiva guru,
Belkale, see Tenkanidiyur, 379	140, 290, 403
(n)	Bhārgava, see Parasurāma
Bellāļa Sōyamayya, 400 (n)	Bhārgavapuri, see Siddhapuş-
Bellarasa Bammarasa, chieftain,	karanī
267	Bhatta, the fortune-telling, 466,
Belle, 416	467
Bēlūr, 250, 490, 520, 556	Bhaṭāri-kula, 68, 251
Beļuvāvi, 106, 107, 111, 166	Bhattācārya Prabhākara, a Smār-
Belvola 300, 262 (n)	tha guru, 26, 375, 452, 453
Bendrey, scholar, 376 (n)	Bhattakala (Bhatkal), 43 (n), 213,
Bengirimandala, 211	304
Berampolli, 467	Bhattapādācārya, a Saiva guru,
Bericețți Śaiva merchants, 396 (n)	453
Beritiyakere, 281	Bhattitilla, 259, 335, 336
Bettadapura, 63	Bherundeśvara, 204
Bettur, 436 (n)	Bhillama, Yādava king, 437
Bezwada, 42	Bhīma, hero, 46, 427, 437, 560-
Bhadur, village, 335 (n)	561
Bhádrā, the, 46, 47 (n)	Bhīmanakallu, 427, 438
Bhadrabāhu, Jaina teacher, 409	Bhīsma, hero, 221
Bhadrappa Nāyaka, king, 456	Bhoja Deva, king, 31

A. K. 40

Bhoja Rāja, king, 2, 4

Bhoşana (Bhūşana) Adhikāri, 137 Bhrgu, see Jamadagni Bhujabala, prince, 229 Bhujabali Kavi Alupendra Pāndya Cakrvartin, king, 98, 99, 101, 106-112, 115, 117-118, 121, 122, 123, 161, 161 (n), 163 166, 167, 174, 187, 190, 205, 206, 235, 236, 237, 238, 239, 269, 271, 273, 277, 280, 358, 359 Ālu-Bhujabala Kulaśekhara pendra, king, 99, 115, 119-122 (n)-123, 138, 142, 207, 255, 258, 260-261, 359, 381, 401, 403, 413 Bhūtāla Pāndya, Bhūta Pāndya, hero, 52, 53, 296, 303, 345, 347, 348, 349, 352, 352 (n), 353, 354, 355, 355 (n), 356, 357, 358, 361, 361 (n), 363, 364, 366, 367 (n), 375 (n)Bhūtanātha, a spirit, 349 Bhūtappāndi, 367 (n) Bhuvanāśraya, 150, 174 Bidirūru, (Bednore, Nagar) 264 Bidirūru, Bidire, see Mūdubidre Bihar, 8 (n), 22, 41, 41 (n) Bijjalendra king, 63, 262, 262 (n) Bijjala Devi, queen 229, 230 Bilhana, 205, 260 Bilikuñja guttu, 509 Billavars, the 6, 371, 460, 467, 468, 512, 547, 569, 570 Binnadi Kāra, 483, 484, 537, 561 Binnāna, prince, 349 Binni Verggade, 110 Bīra Ballya 475 Bīra Kalkuda, see Kalkuda, hero Bīrarasa, chieftain, 113, 113 (n), 116, 117, 118, 119, 263, 264, 265, 2**66**, 267

Birarasa Bammarasa, 265, 265 (n). 266, 266 (n) Bīrabbarasi, princess, 228, 231 Bīra Nolamba, chieftain, 225 (n) Biravadi Candava., 99 Bīreya Deva, 255, 257 Birmanna Baidya, 495, 496, 565 Biruga, Vīra Sāntara, king, 229, 230, 231, 232 Birusa, 255 Bitteya Hebbāruva, 258 Bobbariye, a bhūta, 105, 371, 482, 497 Bobbariye Kunniyāle, 487 Bollu, a dog 514 Bölüru, 484, 485 Bombaya, 481 Bommala Devi, princess, 240 Bommarasa, a Santara king, 114 (n) Bommeya, General, 258 Bommi Devarasa, chieftain, 241 Boppa Dandādhipa, General, 276 Boppa Deva, king, 254, 269 (n) Bowring, writer, 44 (n) Boyis, the, see also Mogers, 325; 516 Boygavamā, 89, 91, 184 Brahmā, a bhūta, 461, 485, 486, 487, 491, 503 Brahmara, a bhūta, 462, 516, 519, 542, 557 Brahmans, the, 2, 3, 6, 11 (n), 19, 24-28, 31, 33, 166, 193, 197, 202° 210, 294 (n), 298, 300, 310-313, 316, 318, 324 (n), 325, 325 (n), 326, 326 (n), 330-331 (n), 332+ 334 (n), 349-351, 368, 386, 398, 406-408, 447, 455 (n), 460, 462,

465-467, 521, 546-548, 568

Brahmāvūru, (Brahmapura), 125, 126, 127, 140, 181, 189, 350, 360, 402, 440 Brāhmānanda Svāmi, a Smārtha guru, 453 (n) Brahmapura (Ajapuri), 302 Buchanan, traveller, 5, 278, 279, 369, 407, 408, 409, 471, 475, 477 Buddha Gautama, 377, 383 Buddha, king, 201 Buddhavarmā, 201 (n) Buddhisāgara, 418 Buddists, 216 (n), 324, 374, 380 Buddhism, 374-378, 381, 384, 384 (n), 385, 450 (n) Buddyanta, 468, 471, 473-475, 477, 496, 500, 501, 507, 509, 510, 525, 572, 581, 582 Bühler, scholar, 450 (n) Bukka, king, 140 Bunts, Baragas, the 6, 79 (n), 154 (n), 192 (n), 295, 349, 350, 371, 375, 376 (n), 460, 461, 467, 468° 490, 544, 545, 549, 570 Burnell, scholar, 459 (n), 460 (n) Byrasu Wodeya, king, 409 Byzantion, 56 (n)

C

Cājirāja, chieftain, 223 (n)
Cāgi Śāntara, king, 228, 232
Cakragotta, 278
Cakranadī. the 324 (n)
Caldwell, scholar, 1, n.
Calukkiarasar, see Vijayāditya
Satyāśraya
Cāmuṇḍa Bernāye, 534
Canara, 1, n.
Caṇḍa, 7

Candagidi, Sandagidi, 505, 512, 531, 534, 535 Cāṇḍālas, the, 350 (n) Candāvūru, 257, 258 (n), 286 Canda Gauda, 362 Candrāngada, prince, 300, 326, 326 (n), 327 (n), 347, 348, 351, 352, 363, 375 Candradatta, king, 312 Candragiri hill, soe Kalabappu Candragiri, the, see Payasvānī, the Candragutti, 20 Candrāpīda, prince, 14 Candraśekhara, 2 Candravalli, 327, 327 (n) Cangāļva, king, 63 Cangāļvas, the, 61, 62, 62 (n), 63, 63 (n) Canganād (mod. Huņsūr tāluka), 61, 63 Cangalvadevaru alias Mariva Perggade Pilduvayva, 63 Cānta (Śāntara), 224 Cannanore, 483 Cara, 351 Cāru, 351 Cārukīrti Paņdita, Jaina guru, 143, 146, 240, 242, 410, 411, 412 412 (n), 415, 415 (n) Caravattur, 2 Casiri, 55 Cātu Kuţti, a bhūta, 371 Cattiga Deva, king, 203, 204 (n) Cattala Devi, princess, 229, 230 Caudapa, author, 346 (n) Caudappa Nāyaka, Cauda Gauda, king, 365, 366 Caurāstradeśa, 326 Cauta, Cavuta, Cautars, the, chief-

tains, 304, 306, 351, 408, 408 (n)

Cavunda, 225 Cedi (Bundelkand), the country, 246, 391 Cennaya, of Edambūru, a guide, 462, 519, 533, 537, 577, 578 Cennaya, hero, 154 (n), 372 (n), 373 (n), 459, 462-464, 467-468, 471, 474, 418-479, 483, 485, 488, 494, 496, 498-499, 501-502, 504-507, 509-510, 512-513, 517, 519, 521, 523, 525-526, 528-529, 531-535, 537-538, 556, 558-560, 562-564, 567-570, 572-574, 576, 578. 581 Cera, Chera. 9, 49, 50, 211, 214, 278 Ceruman Perumal, 20 Ceylon, 376 Charpentier, scholar, 23 Chingleput district, 346 (n) Chota Nagpur, 8, n. Christians, the, 428 (n), 460, 461 Cikkanāyakanahalli, 20 Cikkāyi Tāyi, Bukkāyi Tāyi, Ksņāyi Tāyi, Hoysala queen. 291, 287-292 (n) Cimnarāja Odevar, chieftain. 153, 154 (n) Citapāvans, the, 326 (n) Citupādi (Cittupādi), 304, 338. 345 (Cantrangada), Citrangada prince, 342 Śrimat Citravāhana I, king, Aluva Raja, 65, 69-78 (n), 79, 82-89, 91-93, 159, 165, 167, 186, 188-189, 202, 207, 210, 338, 386, Citravāhana (II), king, 65, 93, 155, 218-221 (n)-222, 223, 225, 258 (n)

Citrasedu, 71, 84, 210 Cochin, 38 (n), 482 Coimbatore, district, 53 Cokimayya, Bokimayya, Bokana, General, 277 Cola, 211, 212, 214, 276 (n), 394 Colama, king, 266 Colamandalam, 213, 276 Colas, the, 18 (n), 77, 78, 211-213, 232, 246, 260 Colika Mattarasa, 63 (n) Cőlikeri Cőlivakeri, (Cola street), 213, 243, 294 Coorg, 62 Cori. 351 Cosmos Indico Pleustes, 428 (n) Cowell, scholar, 384 (n) Cuddappah, 43 (n), 333 Cura, 551 Cunningham, scholar, 45 (n), 335 Cutus, the, 48, 196, 198, 199 D Dadiga, 17 Dahana Köläla, 19 Dakkes, (Vaidyas), the, 370 Daksiņa-Kailāsa, 398, 399 Dambi, Dombi, Domba, prince, 349, 352 Dammaragudde, 134, 136 Dānamūla, 364, 365 Dandatirtha, 420 Dasaratha, 27 Dattāļpendra Šrīmāra, king, 93. 172, 173, 176, 226, 388-401 Dattālvas, the 62

Dattātreya, 10

Dēmaņa, 338

Dēgona Rāņa. 164

Dērama Setti, 410 (n)

Dāvanagere tāluka, 69, 71, 436 (n)

Dharmasthala, 371, 373, 373 (n)

Dēre, see Adūru Dēre Baidya Deśīyagaṇa, 243 (n) Devaloka, 537 Dēvaṇageri Ballāļa, 578, 579 Devacandra, author, 376 Devagiri, 422, 430, 434, 435, 436 (n), 438 Devala Kanda, 107 Devaligenāḍ, 362 Devaṇṇaraṣa alias Komṇa, 153, 154 Deva Pāṇḍya, citizen, 348 Deva Pūrja, 459 Deva Rāja Oḍeyar, 346 (n) Devaraṣa, Prince, 419 (n) Dēvarāta Kauśikagotra, 70 Deva Rāya (Sāluva) king, 365 Deva Rāya II, king, 180, 181, 337, 353 Devaḍittiyer, 168, 187 Deveya, 111 [n) Devikā, the, 45 Devikāpuram, 395, 396, 396 (n),
397 (n) Devu, 87, 159 Dēvi Baidyedi, 468-470, 474, 488, 491, 493, 495, 496, 500, 501, 516, 524, 547, 553, 556, 557, 558, 565, 566, 570, 576, 577, 582 Dhahalamandala, Nine lakh country, 391, 392, 396 Dhanavantariksetra, 425
Dharani Setti, 338 Dharmabhūsana bhattāraka, 415 (n) Dharmakaranika, 207 Dharma, king, 482, 483, 484, 537, 561, 562
Dharmanayga, 178 Dharma Siva or Sambhu, a Sai- va guru, 394, 399

Dharwar district, 77 Dhaumya, 12 Dhenukā, the, 42 (n) Dhruva Nirūpama I, king, 219, 220 Dhruvesvara Pandita, 400 (n) -Dhyajeśvara, see Koţēśvara Dikshit, K. N., scholar, 100 (n) Dikshitar, Ramachandra, V. R., scholar, 48 (n) Dilavar khan, 154 (n) Divākarašarmā, 70, 185 Dorasamudra, 234, 238, 269, 272, 294 Doravale, 203 (n) Doyyongulu, Attāvara, bhūtas, 464, 537, 546, 562 Drāvida (Dravila), 246, 263 Drāviladeśa Perivanda Hebbāruva, 334 Dubreuil, Scholar, 210 (n) Dugamāra, Ereyapa, king, 253 (n) Dugganna Kaver, 478, 507 Durjavanta, 43 Durgāpūjā, 419 Durvāsas, sage, 389, 390, 391 (n), 392, 396, 400 Durvinita Korgunivrddha, king, 15, 202 (n) E

Eca Gauda, 281

Edambüru, principality, 462, 479, 488, 504, 512, 514, 519, 523, 528, 532, 533, 563, 578 Edevolal (visava), 64-66, 70-72, 210 Egypt, 54 Ejanagara (Vijayanagara), 482, 483, 484

Ekkadka Erryangada, 514 Ekkār, 320 (n), 478, 507, 541 Ekkaraparāra, 507 Elenāyar, 299 (n) Elliot, scholar, 55 Ellur Abbe, 498, 557 (n), 572 Eñjala Deví, queen, 228, 232 Eppuli Nāyakar, 398 Erega, king, 253 (n) Erajha, 475, 491, 498, 529, 574 Ereyammarasa, chieftain, 221 (n) Ereyanga, king, 269 (n) Ereyappa Nītimārga II, king, 16 331 Ermāl, 6, 353 (n) Ernādu (Bainādu), 302 Erumainādu, 48, 51

F

Fakanūr (Bārakuru), 226 Fātima, 461, 481, 482, 485, 531 Fleet, J. F., scholar, 37, 38, 38 (n), 56 (n), 59, 201, 209 (n), 327 (n), 435 (n), 436 (n), 437

G

Gabhasti, the, 42 (n)
Gagana Šiva Ācārya, a Saiva
guru,, 93, 388-391, 400, 401
Gajapati, king, 421
Gajapurī, 299
Gajāranya Kṣetra, see Koppāla
matha
Gaṇapati, king, 394, 399 (n)
Ganda (Gauḍa?), 575
Gandhamādana mount, 427
Gangamaṇḍala, 211
Gangāmūla, 47 (n)
Ganga Pallavas, the 64 (n)
Ganga Perūr, 333
Gangarasi Pandita, 400 (n)

Gangas, the, 59, 68, 71, 202, 222, 230 (n), 246 (n), 253, 332 Gangavādi Six Thousand, 204, 253 (n), 254, 270 Gangavādi, Gangolli, Gurget, the, see Suktimatī the Ganges (Bhagirathi), the, 50, 190, 194, 335, 391, 422, 566 General, Gangeva Daņņāyaka, 286 (n) Gañjām, 426 Garuda, 449 (n), 483, 541 Gauda, 220, 394 Gauda, Gauja, Agrahāra, 117, 332 Gautamī Balaśrī, queen, 199 Genda, 481 Gerasoppe, 365 Gerini, scholar, 335 Ghats (the Western), the 14, 62, 65, 66, 68, 77, 102, 104, 116, 197, 207, 225, 237, 252, 277, 282, 285 (n), 286, 292, 363, 448, 483, 514, 517, 524, 530, 536, 537, 559, 561, 571, 574 Ghayasu-d Din Balban, Sultan, 438 (n) Ghorāstra, 16, 17 (n), 40 (n) Gīrnār, 47 Goa (Gopakapaţţaņa) (Govapura) 37, 38 (n), 260, 294 (n), 423, 424, 482 Gobbūru, 34 God-Anjaneya, see Hanumanta Annadāni Mallikārjuna, 63 Arkeśvara, 455 (n) Balarāma, 422

Bankeśvara, 149, 151, 404

Bhairava (Siva), 271

Billeśvara, 264

Brah mā, 132, 403, 537, 564, 565	Parameśvara, 297
Gaṇapati, 108, 126	Pārśvanātha, 121, 144, 151, 240,
Gīrīśa, 330	243, 413, 414, 415
Govinda, 106 (n), 446	Pasupata, 67, 386
Hanumanta, 25, 102, 105, 132,	Phanikankana, see Siva
142	Prajāpati, see Indra
Hara, 329, 330	Purāri (Śiva) 329
Hari, 442	Rāma, hero of the epic, 357,
Hayagrīva, 380 (n)	421, 426, 438, 439, 473
Holaladeva, 156	Rudra, 328
Hṛsikeśa, 446	Samarahara, 330
Indra, 37 (n), 124	Sambhu, 382 (n), 386
Iśvaia (Maheśvara), 330, 383, 386, 403, 449, 537	Sambhukallu (Cambukallu), 63, 67, 81
Jimmappa, 536	Saņmukha, 34
Kānada (Kānana) Šankaranārā-	Šāstāveśvara, 377
yaṇa, 340	Sesa, 60
Kāntadeya, 425	Sīḍalinga, 536
Keśava, 383, 446	Simheśa, 311
Kilgaņeśvara, 72-75, 168, 188 Konata (?), 340	Siva, 32, 33, 34, 42, 42 (n), 63, 317, 325, 329, 369, 370, 382
Kṛṣṇa, Vāsudeva, Gopāla,	Skanda Kārtikeya, 370
80 (n), 339, 422, 435, 439,	Somanātha, 135, 169, 170, 288,
441 (n), 442, 454, 456	338, 403, 408
Lokeśvara, 94, 95 (n), 96 (n),	Śrīdhara, 446
173, 227, 382, 383, 401	Subrahmaņya, Subrāya, 91, 209,
Mādhava, 446	370, 387, 449 (n), 536, 537
Madhukeśvara, 67	Sudarśana, 443
Mahādeva, 237, 239, 340	Timireśvara, 174, 175 (n)
Mahālingeśvara, 536	Tistava, 300 (n)
Maheśvara, 132, 518	Trivikrama, 446
Mañjunātha, 146, 283	Varuņa, 34
Mārkaņģeśvara, 107, 109, 234,	Vāyu, 417
236, 336, 402	Virūpāksa, 340
Nakhareśvara, 108, 108 (n), 131, 402, 403	Visṇū, 46, 132, 250, 403, 444-447, 449, 541
Nārāyaṇa, 443, 446, 537	Goddess
Nrsimha, 312, 444, 445, 453, 455	Ādi, see also Durgā, 381
Padmodbhava (Brahmā), 331	Bhagavatī, 130, 180, 317, 379,
Pañcalingesvara, 355 (n)	380, 380 (n)
Pāņdyēśvara, 248	Bhārati, see Kāśyapī
-	

Cāmuṇḍeśvarī, 379 (n)	Gotamiputra Śatakarņī, king, 198
Durgā (Paramēśvarī) 120, 121,	Govardhana, 13
147, 148, 155, 157, 379, 379	Govinda IV, king, 393
(n), 380, 381, 402	Govindācārya Svāmi, scholar,
Gaurī, 330, 381, 413	452 (n)
Gundadabbe, 30	Govinda Kāranta, 338
Holala Bhattaraki, 155, 156,	Govinda Pai, scholar, 59 (n), 64
157, 381	(n), 95 (n) , 96 (n) , 355 (n) ,
Kali, 300, 559	375 (n)
Kāśyapī, 315, 317	Govindasvāmī, a Smārtha guru,
Laksmī, 529	457
Mangaļā, Ādi, Māyā Devi,	Graul, scholar, 373 (n)
378, 378 (n)	Gudda Nāyaka, 320
Mañjuśrī, 380 (n)	Guddasāne, 320
Māri Ammā, Ammanavaru,	Guḍūr Taluka, 207, 211
369, 379	Gujarat, 324 (n), 412 (n)
Mūkāmbikā, 380 (n)	Gujjara (King of), 222
Padmāvati, 224, 234, 235, 236,	Gujjarakedu (tank), 518
240, 243	Gummața (Gōmața), 110, 243,
Parameśvarī, 540	243 (n), 468, 489, 490, 494
Pārvatī, 297, 325, 369	Gulf of Manar, 214
Prāśaktī, 391	Guṇasāgara Āļu-arasar, king, 70,
Sāradā, 164, 453	73-77, 79 (n), 82, 189, 358
Śāsana Devī, 328	Guṇḍa, 17
Sitā, 383, 421, 426, 438, 439	Guṇḍāl, 7
Tārā Bhagavatī, 157, 378, 378	Gundibailu, 105
(n), 379, 380 (n), 383	Guntur district, 399 (n)
Yaksini, see Durgā,	Gupta (family) 185
Godāvarī, the 13, 46, 421	Gurguñjemula, See Gangāmula
Godhanagiri, 45	Gurjara, 263
Gokarna, 21, 26, (n), 39, 43, 245,	Guru Rao, 432 (n)
299, 324 (n), 350, 447	Guru Sarapoli, 483, 574 Guttuberke, 467
Golaki, Golagi, Golagiri, 392	H
Goldstücker, scholar, 430 (n)	
Golla, 580, 581	Hacevettu, 152
Gollarāma Dēyar, 483, 574	Hāḍuhaḷḷi (Hāḍaḷḷi, Sangītapura) 213
Gomanta, 44	Haihaya, tribes, 10
Gooty taluka, 71	Haiva, Haiga, Hayva, Hayve,
Gōpīśvararāya, a chieftain, 138, 139, 283	Payve 500, 27, 28, 30, 30 (n),
Gorāsta, Govarāstra, 28, 300, 447	31, 34, 37, 61, 254, 294, 326, 350
seeding Containning 20, 700, TT	er, er, er, mer, mer, mer, cau, com

433

Hālāḍi Hoļe, the, 45	Hinduism, 407, 408
Haleyamma, 113, 116, 117	Hindus, the, 382 (n), 408, 409,
Hali, 351	428 (n), 537, 545, 546
Halli, queen, 349	Hinkiri Bāṇār, 529
Halmidi (Palmidi), 58, 68, 81,	Hiraṇyagarbha Vikrama Śā nt ara,
250, 251, 251 (n), 252, 385	king, 228
Hanagvāḍi, 286	Hiraṇyāksa, 46
Haņdana Visņu Kāranta, 338	Hiraṇyavarmā, king, 209 (n)
Haṇḍa Kṛṇa Kāranta, 338	Hirekalyāņi, 456
Handes, the. 336, 338	Hiriya Daṇṇāyaka, 112, 113 (n),
Handiottbail, 496	116, 118
Hangārakatta, 42, 451	Hiriyangadi, 240, 242, 244
Hanumān, 427	Hittalu, 220
Hanumanta Rao, scholar, 431 (n)	Hōcala (Hoysala) Devi, queen,
Hanuvaradvîpa, 17, n.	228
Hārade Deva, 107	Holavanahalli, 111 (n)
Haresapura 71, 210	Hole-Narasīpura tāluka, 362
Hariapa Daņņāyaka, 181, 182, 284	Holeyas, the, 5, 6, 7, 370, 371,
Hariharapura, (town), 69, 71, 73,	372 (n), 460, 461, 463, 490, 549
453, 454, 454 (n)	Hōli, 351
Harihara, I, king, 140, 290, 293(n)	Hollas, the, 336
Harihara Rāya II, king, 31, 35,	Holli Gāvuṇḍa, 399 (n)
259, 290, 294, 309, 337, 339, 340,	Honnāļi taluka, 286
346, 346 (n), 453	Honnavūra, see Honuvaradvīpa,
Harihar Trivedi, scholar, 335 (n)	17 n.
Hariparvata, 45	Honneya Nāyaka, 292
Hāruvijgoppa Vāmana Hebbā-	Hos, the 8, n.
rava, 452	Hosaholalu, 172, 205
Hassan, 20, 250	Hosakote taluka, 19
Hastināvatī, 423.	Hosagunda, 101 (n), 112, 113,
Hattiangadi, 406,	113 (n), 116, 118, 119, 262, 263,
Hattikuduru, 17 n.	264, 265, 266, 267, 268, 282, 285,
Hāvēri, 204 (n)	453
Hegde, Sirnivasa, author. 17 (n),	
305 (n), 355 (n)	Hosavadaha, 182, 284
	Hosavūru, 400 (n)
Heggade, prince, 349, 351	Hoysalas, the 64, 206, 232, 238,
Hemacandra Bhattāraka, 415 (n)	238, 247, 268, 2 9, 270, 276, 279
Hemāngada, king, 297 341, 351	(n), 282, 285, 288 (n), 411
Heras, Henry, scholar, 209 (n)	Hṛṣīkeśatīrtha, a Vaisṇava guru,

Hesaraghatta, 391 (n)

Hubasika, Hubbadiga, Habāsiga, Hebasi, a chieftain, 5, 327 (n), 350, 350 (n), 351 (n) Hunnūr river, the, 362 Hunsur tāluka, 63 Hultzsch, Dr. scholar, 58, 59, 62 (n), 65, 67, 90 (n), 93, 390 (n)

1

Idekedu, Idake, 302, 308 Idu Sāvanta, chieftain, 264, 265 Ijjya, 514, 530 Ikkeri, 456 Iksū, the, 42 (n) India, 17, 53, 198, 323, 404 India Central, 391 India, Northern, 196, 408, 418, 439 India Office, 430 (n) India, Southern, 39, 439 India, Western, 36, 39 Indrakīla, 42, 42 (n) Indrāņi (Indraļi or Indraļli), 21, 43, 379, 379 (n) Indrapura, a teacher (?), 423 Inu-Kulottunga Cola. king, 216 (n) Irala Kurave, 475 Iravadūru, 484, 485 Iravattūru, 353 (n) Iridige, 37 Iruvailu, 145, 259 Isanasarmā, a Saiva teacher, 71 Isanasiva, a Saiva teacher, 390 Īśana Šiva Ācārya, a Saiva teacher, 395, 396, 397 (n), 398, 400 Isana Siva a Šaiva Rāvula. teacher, 395, 396, 397 Isana Siva Yogindra, a Saiva teacher, 395, 396 Isara Kambli, 530, 559

Isupattakṣetra, 423 Iśvara, citizen, 107 Iśvara Deva, chieftain, 265 (n) Iśvarāmśa, 19

J

Jagadalāla Gangeya Sāhaņi, General, 285 Jagadekamalla II, king, 204 (n), 235, 262 (n) Jagadevarasa, a Santara 114 (n) Jagadevarasa, Vira, Alupa king. 99, 112-119, 123, 262, 264 Jainas, the 6, 216 (n), 217 (n), 298, 344 (n) 353 (n), 382 (n), 406-410, 414, 462, 465, 467, 537 Jainism, 273, 344, 382 (n), 384 402, 403, 404, 406, 407, 408, 410, 411, 412, 413, 414, 415 Jaitugi, Yādava king, 437 Jakka Gauda, 281 Jakkala, Devi princess, 232 (n) Jakala Mahādevī, gueen, 122 Jakkanācārva, 364 (n) Jamadagni, Rsi, 10, 12, 15, 20, 31, 32 Jamalābād, 278, 279, 279 (n) Jambitige, 453, 454 Janardhana Salagrama, 448 Janārdhanatīrtha, Vaisnava guru, 433 Jārantāya, a bhūta, 517 Jatanavva, 281 Tribhuvanacakra-Jatāvarman vartin Vīra Pāndya Deva, king, 397, 398 Jayakeśin, I, king of Konkan, 122, 205, 260, 261, 272 (n)

Javakeśi, Śāntara king, 34, 35

king, 157

Jayasinga, a Western Cālukya

Jayanta, mount, 45 Javanta, chieftain, 382 Jayanti-dvipa, 56 (n) Jayantika Kadamba Rāya, king, Jayantipura (Jayantikā), 56 (n) Jaya Pandya, chieftain, 347, 348 Javasimha, king 201 (n) Jayasimhabhūpa, prince, 419, 424 Jayasingādu, 270 Jayaswal, K. P., scholar, 327 (n) Jīnadatta Rāya, king, 224, 225, 225 (n), 243, 266, 406 (n), 407, 409, 410 Jinasenācārva, 217 (n) Jinendra, king, 344 (n) Jjhunkunjanā Deva, 120 Jňanamrtacarva, 398 Jňāna Šaivācāryas, 396 (n) Iñāna Śivācārya, 399 (n) Joshi, scholar, 376 (n) Joti Brahman cirl, See, Dēyi Baidyedi Jubbalpore, 392 Judda (Yuddha) Malla, 86 Jum**n**ā, the, 371 (n), 407 Jwala Sahay Mishra, scholar, 325 (n)

K

Kabenādu, 424
Kaccha (Cochin?), 44
Kacchara-vamśa, 207
Kaccūru Māldi, Bāle, 517, 535, 538
Kadaba, 223 (n)
Kadal Setti, 178
Kadamaņa Setti, 574
Kadamba, king, 297, 350
Kadambakānana, 299
Kadamba-kula, 328, 329

Thousand, Kadambalaligenād, 230, 286 Kadambamandala, 66, 67, 73, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79 (n), 83, 250 Kadambas, the, 66, 76, 77, 78, 79 (n), 249, 252, 254, 254 (n). 260, 332, 333, 4**8**8 Kadamba Satyāśraya Deva, king, Kadari (Kadkari-Vitthala), 304 Kadiyāli, 379 (n) Kadri (Kadirikā, Kadare), 22, 43 (n), 94, 131, 133, 173, 219, 227, 228, 304, 316, 377, 378, 379 (n), 382, 383, 384, 401, 489 Kadu-Kukke, 370 Kadurabelambettu, 388 Kadur district, 20 Kādu Vāmana, 132 Kāduvetti, king, 230 Kāgu, a dog, 514 Kailāsa, 505, 538, 565 Kaipudes, the, 490 Kaivalyāśrama Svāmi, a Smārtha guru, 451 Kājuva Mainduvālda, 110 Kākarasa, 220 Kākatīyas, the, 262 Kalbappu, 51 Kalabhras, the, 70, 77 Kalacari, Kalacuriya, 18, 19, 201, 329, 394 Kalacuriyas, the 201 (n), 262, 330, 392 Kālala Deva, 362 Kalhana, 36 Kāļarasa, chieftain, 267, 267 (n) Kalaśa, 62 (n) Kalasappa, 481 Kālāvara, 181, 370

Kaleyabbarasi, queen, 229

Kālidāsa, poet, 13, 27, 28, 38, 39, 382 (n) Kalinga, 263, 434 Kalise, 366 Kalkuda, a bhūta, 371, 487, 500, 523 Kalladakurucci, 397 Kallise, 263, 267 Kallūrāya, 305 Kallyāņapura, 428, 428 (n), 429 Kālorgana, 414 Kālsi, 47 Kaltide, 86, 185, 238 Kāļu, a dog, 514 Kāļu-Nāyaka, 578, 579, 581 Kalvāņa, 112 Kāma Deva, chieftain, 228, 259 Kāmadevarasa, Alupa king, 145, 259 Kāma Deva, Kava Deva, General 206, 255 Kāmakōda, 87, 386 Kambalasāna, 7 Kampana, prince 140 Kanada Kattire, 475 Kanakasabhai, scholar, 49 (n) Kanakavarmā, prince, 297, 298 Kāṇanūr, 204 Kanapāditāva, a bhūta, 536 Kānapāthi Jogis, 22, 458 Kanara High School, 148, 150. 151, 175 (n), 191, 404 Kanara, North, 1, 21, 37, 38 (n). 49 (n), 258, 260, 261 Kanara (Canara) South, 1, 9, 38 (n), 49 (n), 65, 203, 223 (n), 235, 355, 367 (n), 416 (n), 419, 429 (n), 453 (n), 464 Kanci (pura), 44, 77, 78, 79 (n), 208 (n), 245, 260, 384 Kañci Kadanga, 483, 561

Kancinadka, 530 Kañcuna, 351 Kanda Bollarasvāmi, 530, 559 Kanda Buleri, 514 Kandāvara, 350 Kandukācārya, 236 Kāngōdu (Kānjinōdu), 304 Kanheri, 198 Kankayya, 233 (n) Kankem (mod. Kanki), 389, 390 Känker, 45 (n) Kannaci, 176 Kannada country, 61 Kannānūru, 362, 363 Kannara Deva, king, 36 Kannarapādi, 21, 379 Kanriottu, the, 2 (n) Kāntaņa Māra Āļuva alias Komņa, 152

Kāntanna, 560, 57/ Kāntāvara, 183, 304, 425 Kāritu Pombada, 542 Käntu Setti, 574 Kanvatīrtha, 425, 425 (n), 441 (n) Kanya, a man, 517 Kanyākumārī, 26, 26 (n), 34, 420 Kanyāņa, 283, 289, 291, 309 Kaorhari, the, 41 (n) Kāpu, Kāpi, 134, 136, 137, 522 Karahāta, 27, 326, 389, 390, 399, 400 Kārandūru (Kārandāru), 301 Karar ja-kheta, 390, 390 (n) Karanjapatra, 71, 84, 210 Kārañje, 44 (n) Kārantas, the 336, 337 Karasi Nayga (Nāyaka), 177 Karenke, see Ballāļa of Kukvāli Kārevūru (Tārevūru), 301 Karividi Hirur, 270

INDEX 637

Kīrti Bhattāraka, 414

Kariyangala, 83, 84, 85, 131, 133, Kavai, 2, n. Kavi Vimalāditya, king, 155 155, 156 Kāvu, 5 Kārkaļa, Kārekaļa, 62 (n), 147 (n), Kāvūru (Kālūru), 484, 485, 499 240, 242, 244, 256, 304, 388, 390, 404, 406, 408 (n), 409, 410, 413, Kāviri, 481 Kayya-Vamsa, 85 415 (n), 468, 489, 490, 521, 567 Kārkala tāluka, 101, 106, 110-111. Keladi State, 365 119, 121, 129, 134, 138, 145, 152, Kelavinādu, see Kolavinādu 153, 183, 242, 247, 259, 282, 290, Kellata Märnäd, 500, 520 Kemēr Ballāla, See Ballāla of 293, 294 (n), 380 Pañia Karkota dynasty, 36 Kemirje (Kemirja), 302 Karlutti, heroine, 371, 500, 520 Kemmule, 462, 503, 516, 533, 541 Karmisāle, 514, 559 557 Kārnādu, 7 Kendu Deva, 487 Karnātaka, Karnāta, the. Kerala, 2, 3, 4, 9, 13, 22, 24 (n), 18 (n), 19, 23, 24, 27-29, 31, 34. 27, 29, 29 (n), 104, 205, 215. 35, 39, 47, 51, 54, 58, 59, 62, 64, 326, 356, 371, 394, 419, 420 77, 123, 145, 160, 162, 166, 167, Keralas, the, 41, 71, 77, 78 170, 171, 185, 187, 188, 203, Kervāśe, 412, 414, 415 204 (n), 211, 218, 220, 235, 239, Kervāśe, 242, 243 245, 248, 261, 263, 268, 270, 346, Kesavadeva, General, 258 349, 361, 363, 363 (n), 371 (n), Keśava Kāranta, 338 401, 402, 405, 452 (n), 453, 457, Keśava Nāvaka, 337 461 Kappeţţu-grāma, 299 (n) Keśimayya, Keśirāja, General, Kārtavīrya, king, 10, 13 n., 14, 30 (n), 262, 262 (n) 18, 20, 27 Khandavāyana Brahmans, the, 11 Kāru, 45, Khandeya agrahāra, 361 Kārwar, 198, 199, 416 (n) Khatris, the, 22 Kāsaragōdu, 5, 42, 203, 304, 419 Khiri (Bhiri), 351 Kāśmīra, 36, 164, 384 (n) Kidiyūru, 379 (n) Kasyapa, 10, 11, 23 Kigga (taluka), 65, 69, 72, 73, 74, Kaţāra, 267 75, 78 (n), 168 Kilai Kudalūr, 398 Kati, 351 Kilinje, 105 Kattingere, 370 Killa, 72 Kaudambāditāya, 308 Kilpādi, 419 (n) Kautalya, 161 (n), 318, 319. Kinni Dāru, 479, 573 335 (n) Kirāta, 42 (n) Kavaca Dāsa, 375 Kirimar jeśvara, 370 Kāva Deva, Kadamba Rudra,

king, 258, 258 (n), 285, 330

Kirti Deva, 31 Kīrti Sambhu, 394, 396 Kīrtivarmā I, king, 60, 66, 68, 69, 76, 78, 82, 90 (n), 200, 201 Kirtivarmā II, king, 203, 208 (n) Kīru-kāgamāsi, 71, 72 Kittel, scholar, 132 (n) Kōcāļva Ballāļa, 534 Kocci Kirīţādhipati, Koccinātha, 306 Kodadabbu, hero, 371, 511, 517, **522, 530**, 535, 538, 573 Kodakala Nāvaka, 137 Kodamanţāya, a bhūta, 478 Kodambālūr, (Kodambai), 244, 245, 246, 247 Kodanād, 267 (n) Kodañjādi Gantavāla, 425 Kodange Bannare, 522, 530, 531, 573 Kodapādi, principality, 514 Kodaśādri, see Kutaśaila Kodavūru, 377 Kodila (Kūdalu, Kūdila), 301 Kodipādi, 302, 377 Kodipādi (Kaudipādi), 424 Kodittillaya (Kodittilla), 336 Kodiyāļ, see Mangalore, 378 Kogali 500, 230 Kokkada, (Kokkōdu), 301, 523, 574 Kokkarane, 377 (n) Kökkarunandadakkan, chief, 245 Kolaba, 38, 38 (n) Kölāla Bhārgava, 19 Kolalanagara, (mod. Kolalagiri), 79, 80 (n), 177 Kolapādi, 504 Kolar, 20 Kolavinādu (Kolanādu), 301. 304

Kalian (not the same as Kallyānapura), 428 (n) Kolakadu guttu, 509 Kolkars, the 514 Kollinganahatta agrahāra, 334 Kolli Pallava, Nolamba, 220, 223, 223 (n) Kollivarasa, chieftain, 223 Kollūru, 21, 380 (n), 489, 520 Kolnādu guttu, 509 Komara (Kumāra), a chief, 167 Komņa, prince, 152, 153, 349, 352 Kondapadmati Buddharaja, 18 Kondaŭra, 340 Kongudeśa, Kongunādu, Kongalnād, 53, 54 (n), 61, 78, 212 Kongālvas, the 62, 62 (n) Konkaņa kir.gdom (rāsţra), 27, 31, 32, 33, 198, 205, 211, 231, 245, 254, 260, 261, 269 (n), 294, 303, 326 Konkana 14,000, 38 Konkana 900, 34, 37, 38 (n) Konkanas, the, see also Sapta Konkanas, 35, 61 (n), 207 Koppa tāluka, 62, 69, 72, 258, 453 Kora, 351 Koraga, village, 242, 243, 415 Koragars, the, 5, 52, 53, 350 (n), 361 (n), 369, 460, 461, 464, 490, 501, 506, 549, 555 Końka, 405 Kośars, the, 49, 49 (n), 50, 51, 53 Kosmos Indikopleustes, 55 Kōta, 83, 86, 119, 120, 124, 125, 126, 139, 140, 179, 303, 305, 307, 310, 314, 315, 316, 336, 338, 350, 360, 402, 440, 454 Kōtadavaru, people, 454 Kolāla, 19, 253 (n) Kotaśādri Psi, 347

INDEX 6'39

Kōțe Baler, 517	Krishna Rao, scholar, 202 (n)
Kōtegeri Subrāya Jyośa, 355 (n)	Kṛṣṇamūrti Sarma, scholar,
Kōţekēri, 109, 110, 114, 163, 233,	431 (n)
235, 236, 237, 238, 242 336, 359	Kṛsna Śāstri, scholar, 217, 430,
Koţeśvara, 3, 21, 89, 91, 125, 127,	431, 431 (n), 435 (n)
440, 538	Kṛsnānanda Svāmi, a Smārtha
Kōţi, hero, 154 (n), 372 (n), 459,	guru, 454, 455, 455 (n), 456,
462, 463, 464, 467, 468, 471, 473,	457 (n)
474, 478, 479, 483, 485, 488, 494,	Kṛṣṇa Rāja Odeyar, king, 457 (n)
496, 498, 499, 501-510, 513, 515,	Kṛsnaveṇi, the, 392
517, 519, 521, 522, 525, 526, 528,	Kṛsnayya Mayya, 337
529, 531-535, 537, 538, 556, 558-	Kṛṣṇavarmā, king, 251
560, 562-564, 566-570, 572-574,	Kṛtasmāra, 44
576, 57 8 , 581	Kṛtavīrya, king, 32
Kōţi Nāyaka, chieftain, 285	Ksatri, 409
Kōţi Seţţi alias Binnāņi, chief-	Ksatriyas, the, 13, 17, 18, 19, 22,23
tain, 294 (n)	Ksīra Svāmi, a Smārtha guru,
Koţīśvara, 310, 314	454, 457
Koţīśvaras, the, 315, 316, 317,	Kubēra guttu, 509
318, 444, 445, 449	Kūḍali, 46
Kōṭiyapa Śeṭṭi, 338	Kuḍaśādri, see Kūṭaśaila
Kotyamale (Kodyamale), 44 (n)	Kudikūra, 127, 128, 163, 181
Kōtyaṇṇa Āļva, 153	Kūḍli, 452 (n)
Koyakūra Vāsudeva, Mayya, 337	Kudremukh (Koțekān), the, 44(n)
Krishna, Dr. scholar, 113, 113(n),	Kuḍupu, 134, 138, 370
114, 115, 116, 250, 264, 265 (n),	Kudyapustūrāya, village, 419,
266 (n), 327	420 (n), 452 (n)
Krōḍamaṇḍala, see Sankara-	Kukke, village, 105, 294 (n)
nārāyaṇa	Kulacchāri, 217
Krodeśa (in Sankaranārāyaņa),	Kulamudda, 221, 221 (n)
447	Kulaśekhara Alupendra III, ki n g,
Kṛṣṇa Bhaṭṭa, 430 (n)	143-147, 150, 175, 242, 403, 414
Kṛṣṇa Deva Rāya the Great, king,	Kulaśekhara (māva) Ālupendra
366	IV, king, 147-152, 191, 194, 360,
Kṛṣṇa I Kannara Akālavarsa,	361, 381, 404
king, 220	Kulottunga Cola Deva, king, 54
Kṛṣṇa III Akālavarṣa Vallabha,	Kumar Bammarasa, chieftain,
king, 390	264, 265, 266
Kṛṣṇa, Kalacuriya, king, 392	Kumāra Bīrarasa, chieftain,
Kṛṣṇa Kāranta, 338	101 (n), 257, 264-266
Kṛṣṇa Mayya, 337	Kumārādri, see Subrahamaņya,

Kumāra Erega, 176 Kumāramangala, 419, 419 (n) Kumāra Rāya, a Jaina prince, 412 Kumāravrttivakūsu, 292 Kumārayya Māramma Hegde. 353 (n) Kumārī (Kumāradhārī) the, 41, 41 (n), 42, 42 (n), 47, 425 Kumāri, See Kanvākumārī Kumbala, Kambali, prince, 349, 351 Kumbhakāsi, see Kōta, 21, 406 (n) Kumbhāsepura (Kumbhāsi) Kumsi, 406 (n) Kumbla, 419, 424 Kumberlu, bhūtas, 371 (n) Kumudacandra Bhattaraka Deva, Jaina guru, 240-241, 415 (n) Kunbis, Kurumbars, Kudumbis, the, 460-462, 527 Kunda, prince, 349 Kunda, a Śūdra, 310 Kundakā Devī, queen, 393 Kundana, 124 (n) Kundanād, 267 (n) Kundāpūra taluka, 89, 91, 101, 102, 108, 119, 125, 130, 174, 181, 283, 289, 290, 305, 309, 370, 380 (n), 406, 440, 451, 508, 538 Kundāpūra, town, 44, 56 (n), 128, 163, 181, 451 (n) Kundavarmarasa I, king, 73-5, 79, 80, 82, 202, 358 Kundavarmarasa II, king, 93, 96 (n), 160, 173, 174, 211, 219, 227, 383, 390, 401 Kundodara, a spirit, 348, 349 Kuñjannāya, 308 Kuñjaradari, 44 Kur jāragiri, 21, 21 (n), 40, 43 Kuñjāru, 21, 379, 379 (n)

Kunni Gauda, 107 Kun Pandya, Kubja Pāndva. Kundamara, Dīrghamara, Sundara Pāndya, king, 216 (n) 217 (n) Kuntala, 51, 333 Kunyamārga (Kunnimārga, Kuñjamarga), 301 Kūpaka, 29 Kuppugadde, 256, 258 Kurnool district, 395 (n), 399 Kuruksetra, 190, 423 Kuśasthali, 325 (n) Kūţa, see Kōţa, 310 Kūţaka (Kūţā, Kūţe), 45, 302, 405, 406 Kūtašaila, 43, 44, 44 (n), 45 Kuvalāapura, 233 (n)

Lacana (Laksmana), hero, 473 Lokkondanawalli, 19 Hegde. Laksmapa, Māramma 353(n)Laksmī Devi, queen, 228 Laksmi, goddess, 16 Laksmi Bommakkā, 295 (n) Lalitāditya Muktāpīda, king, 36 Lalitakīrti Bhaṭṭāraka, Jaina guru, 243 (n) Lankā, Lankāpuri, 25, 29, 39 Lāţa, 38 Lavie, writer, 545 (n) Lingarasa, 309 Lingayāta matha, 340 Lokāditya, a hero, 327 (n), 350, 350 (n)

L

Lokāditya Mayūravarmā, same as Vīravarmā, 298-300, 306, 321, 324, 324 (n), 325, 325 (n), 326, 327, 327 (n), 341-343, 407 Lower Kañci, 483

Lüders, Dr., scholar, 52

Mackenzie, Colin, Col., Survevor, General, 430 (n) Mādadaha, 182, 284 Madāmma, 178 Maddagiri tāluka, 111 (n) Maddūr, 5 Mādhavacandra, 122, 413, Mādhava Mayya, 337 Mādhava Rāva. Governor. 294 (n) Mādhavamantri, 455 (n) Mādhavasarasvatī Svāmi. a Smärtha guru, 454 (n) Madhinyanal, 326 (n) Madhura (northern), 224, 235, 236, 240, 241, 243, 404 Madhvācārya, Maheksa, Vāsudeva, Purnaprajña, Ānandatīrtha, reformer, 345-417 (n), 419, 419 (n), 420, 420 (n)-423 (n)-428 (n)-429 (n)-430 (n)-431 (n)-432(n)-433438 (n)-439 (n)-441 (n)-450452 (n) Madhvatīrtha, a Vaisņava guru, 430 Madhyagehabhatta, 416-418 Madhyatāle, 423 Madi Gauda, 285 Madura district, 399 (n) Madura (Madhura), southern, 64, 125, 216 (n), 356, Madyavadinād, 364. Māgandādisāna, 7 Magebailu (Mogebailu), 301 Mahābaleśvara, 447 Mahādeva (or Īśvara), king, 422, 430, 434-438 Mahādeva, Thera, 51 (n) Mahā Devī, queen of Guņasāgara, 73, 75

na Devi, queen of Gunasagara, 3, 75 Malali (Manēļ), 3 A. K. 41

Mahā Devī, Hoysala queen, 279 Mahākīrti Deva Rāvuļa, 415 (n) Mahakūta 60, 60 (n), 66, 200 Mahāmandaleśvara Cāmunda Rāya, 30, 205 Ketarasa, 267 Kōţi Nāyaka, 453 Lokanātha Devarasa, 144, 240, 241, 242, 412 (**n**), 413 Sāltiratta, Rāva, 98, 167 Sevvagellara, 110-112 Mahānadī, the, 41, 45 (n) Mahāpradhāna Arasu Heggade, 107 Baiceva Dannāvaka, General 286, 289 Devapa Dannāvaka, 182, 284 Jakkarasa Odevar, 309 Mallapa Odevar, 294 Nāgarasa Odeva, 295, 339 Rupabhattayya, 383 Sovanna Senabova, 166 Vavijapa Daņņāvaka, 287 Mahārāstra, 263 Mahāsāmanta Āvcarasa, 400 (n) Sangiya Nāvaka. Mahāsāmanta Mahāvāna 380 (n), 382 (n), 384 Mahisamandala, 48, 51, 51 (n) Māhismatī, 10 Maiduna Oddamadeva, 126, 127 Mailars, the, 5 Mainda (Maina), 421 (n) Mainda Heggade, 138 Majumdar, R. C., scholar 45 (n) Malabar, 2, 26 (n), 38 (n), 299, 482 Maladhārideva, a Jaina guru, 122. 413 Malakāpuram, 392-394 (n) Maļali (Manēļ), 353 (n), 406 (n)

Malapah, the, 42 (n) Māļīva, 394 Malavalli, 198 Malayāladeśa 205, 273, 350 Male, 55, 207 Malenād, 276 Malepa, 231, 232, 270 Maleya, 211 Malik Kafūr, General, 363 (n) Malisāle, 267 Malla, 579 Mallam, 207, 209, 210, 211 Mallana, 225 Mallapa Odeyar, 31 Mallarasa, Viceroy 259 Mallenadecchava, 487 Malli, 351 Malli Deva, king, 255, 255 (n), 256 Mallikārjuna Bhatta, 34 Malpi (Malpe), 177, 421, 435 Māmūlūnār, 49 (n) Mandana Pandita, 343 Mandāra, 236 Mandara, village, 392, 394 Mandasale Biroja, 267 Manduka, 178 Manga Kadamba, 304 Mangalā Devī, 55 (n) Mangalesa Raņavikrama, king, 58, 60, 60 (n), 66, 68, 82, 200, 201, 201 (n), 202 (n) Mangaļūru, Mangalore, Mangalāpura, 43 (n), 55, 55 (n), 61, 94, 131-133, 141, 143, 148-150, 173-175, 203 (n), 215, 217-219, 223, 226-228, 244, 248, 27°, 304, 347 (n), 350 (n), 364, 376, 3 8, 38, 404, 518

Mangal re tāluka, 7, 83, 84, 129,

406 (n), 419 (n) 440

13, 135, 155, 259, 300 (n), 320,

Mangalore Ullaya, Buddyanta, 522, 530, 531 Mangaya, Aditya Deva, king, 246 Mangāvi Akkā, queen, 216 (n), 21. (n), Mārgōdu, 21 Manigārkēri, 134, 135, 169, 337, 33°, 403, 414 Maninoja Rāna, 164 Manipura, 42 Manivarmā, king, 297, 336, 341 Marjananda, 522 Mar jana Komna Bhupa, 154 Manjarūr (Mangalore), 226 Manjeśvara, 262, 350 (n), 3.0, 464 Mai jibīdu, 518 Mar jitāya, Mar ja, 306, 307, 308 Mai junoditāya, 308 Marju Parja, 519, 520 Mankabbarasi, princess, 228, 231 Mannapaikudi, 513 Männer, scholar, 372 (n), 459 (n) Manu, 382 (n) Mapugasattava, 178 Māpillas, the, 460-464, 482, 484, 485, 488, 537, 546 Marakāla, 361, 362, 363 (Alva)-ratar Māramma Aluva king, 79, 80, 80 (n), 81, 82, 90, 90 (n), 155, 177, 201, 250, 252, 385 Marane, 242, 243 (n), 301 Mārapa, king, 140 Mārašarmā, 71 Mārasarva, chieftain, 222 Mārasimha, king, 30 Marātha, 29 Marāthas, the, 217 Marattas, Mahā-rāstrakūtas, the 215, 217, 218, 364

INDEX

Māravarman alias Tribhuvana	Matti, 325 (n), 475
Cakravartin Sundara Pāṇḍya,	Matti Bīra Balaya, 509
king, 395, 397, 398	Mattil Nālaja, 467
Mārkaņdeya, rsi, 297, 298, 336,	Maţţu Marbala Seţţi, 574
343	Māvaļigrāma, 220
Marwar, 220	Māvana, 351
Masana, 258	Māvinakere, 427
Masanitamma, 362	Māyadanga, 497
Matangas, the, 201	Māyāguņḍi, 105, 451, 451 (n)
Matha ()	Māyile, 221
Adhamaru 429 (n), 430 (n),	Mayijanna, 338
433, 433 (n)	Māyikal, see Mangalore, 378
Āmartaka, 391	Mayūrkhaṇḍi, 223
Bāļekuduru, 451, 451 (n), 452,	Mayūravarma, (Sarmā), Kadam-
453 (n), 457	ba, king, 249, 279, 296, 297,
Bhiksā, 395	327-332, 334
Dvārkā, 455, 456, 457	Mayyas, the, 336, 337, 338
Golaki, 392, 394-400 (n)	Mecca, 483
Hîhali (Golaki), 398	Mēdumānan, 224
Kāṇūru, 433, 433 (n)	Melai-Kodamalūr alias Uttama
Kāru, 419	Pandya-nallūr, 248-249
Koppāla, 454, 455 (n)	Menasur, 364
Kṛṣṇa Golaki, 397	Meru, queen, 404
Kṛṣṇāpura, 433, 433 (n)	Miraj, 389, 433 (n)
Kūdli Śringeri, 451 (n)	Mirjān, 2
Muļbāgal, 456, 457	Mittanāḍu (Mittunāḍu), 301
Pčjivara, 433	Mittara, 351
Phalamāru 432(n), 433, 433 (n)	Mīyāra, 294 (n)
Phalmāru, 432(n), 433, 433 (n),	Mocala Mahādevī, queen, 132
at Udipi	Moda grāma, 310
Phalamāru at Mūlki, 429 (n)	Mogasāle, 132
(Pratapa Hariharapura, 453, 454	Mogerāya, 305, 305 (n)
(n)x 0	Mogernād, 518
Puttige) 433, 433 (n)	Mogers, Mugers, the, 5, 371, 460,
Rāghavendrasvāmi, 423 (n)	461, 464, 484, 501, 506, 514
Śirūru, 433, 433 (n)	Moraes, George, scholar, 60 (n),
Sode, 380 (n), 433, 433 (n)	254 (n), 258 (n), 260 (n)
Śringeri, 140, 141 (n), 290-292	Mount
Talakād, 456, 457	Coila, 39,
Uttarādi, 423 (n)	Dilly, 24, 24 (n)
Valkaleśvara, 390, 399_401	Himya (Himalaya), 330
vainaic3vaia, 370, 377 ∞7 01	minya (minanya), 550

Mujuvaru, 107

Hindu Kus, 45 (n)	Mukkanna Kadamba Mayūravar-
Mahendra, 12, 24, 25(n), 29, 43	mā, king, 259 (n), 328, 331 (n),
Mandāra, 445	333
Kiskindhā, 18	Mukti, the, 304
Kotaśādri, 347	Mūla Brahmans, 3(3, 352
Kuñjara, 44	Mulata country, 325
Malaya, 29	Muļbāgal, 453, 455, 456
Paraśu, 24 (n)	Mūlgunda Twelve, 399(n), 400(n)
Pāriyātra, 29	Mūļivaļļi (Malenahaļļi), 251
Pyrrhus, 24 (n)	Mūlki, 7, 17, n., 40, 300 (n), 320,
Rksavat, 29	321 (n), 429 (n), 508, 541
Suktimat (Suktiman), 29, 41,	Mulluņģrum, 396 (n)
41 (n), 45 (n)	Mūļūru, 497
Vindhya (Vindhyas), 14, 29,	Mullūru, 310
222	Munḍa, 7, 8 (n)
Mrgeśa, king, 250	Mundipāditāya alias Kāļabhai.
Muccalagōḍu, 21	rava, a bhūta, 537
Mūdader (Kāļabhairava), a bhūta,	Municandra Traividya Bhaṭṭā-
522	raka, 411
Mūḍanttilla (Mūḍanttillaya), 336	Munnūraya, 305
Mudda, 310, 311	Munro, Sir Thomas, 300 (n)
Muddapa, prince, 140	Murave Byāri, 461, 481, 482, 485,
Mūdgere tāluka, 427, 453	491, 531, 534
Mudiga, 267	Mūsika, 29, 41
Mūḍila (Mūḍela Niḍambūru)	Mustaksetra, 420
295, 304, 336, 338–340, 346,	Musuvana-katta, 281
444 (n)	Mutļa, 286
Mūḍillā, family, 417	Muttavarasa, 178
Mūdubidre, Bidre, Bidire, 119,	Mutthu Vellil, 214
120, 143–145, 147, 148, 151, 175,	Mysore, city, 251 (n), 457 (n)
181, 182, 264, 282–284, 404,	Mysore State, 43 (n), 47 (n) 51,
406-408, 410 (n), 412, 412 (n),	51 (n), 59, 62, 63, 65, 66, 111(n),
413, 414, 489	112, 220, 223 (n), 250, 258, 365,
Mūdukēri, 93, 96, 167, 179, 212,	391 (n), 423 (n), 436 (n), 452,
283, 288, 337, 388	453 (n)
Mudya, Mudda, prince, 349, 352	
Mugurunādu, 148, 149	N
Muhammadans, the, 452 (n), 545	Nābhi, king, 404
Muizzu-d Dīn Kaikobād, Sultan,	Nābhirāja Māramma Hegde,
438 (n)	353 (n)
Mariana 107	BI-1 41 FOO

Nād, the, 520

Nadakalasi, 265 (n)	Nañji-nād-āļvan, 62
Nāḍāļvas, the, 62, 62 (n)	Nañjanagüd, 423 (n)
Nādmaduva, 452	Nannan, king, 49 (n)
Nadapu, 137	Nanni, prince, 229
Nādavars, the, see Bunts,	Nāpade, 87, 171
Nadavilmudi, 88, 171	Nārada, 457
Nāḍi Kuduru, 7	Naraharitīrtha, a Va
Nāḍu Balaya, 461, 486	421, 426, 430, 431 (
Nadvantādi, 416 (n)	Narasimhacarya, R
Nadvattilläya, Nadvattilla, 336	141 (n), 362, 438 (n
Naga, 247,	Narasimha Odeya, 19
Nāgadevarasa, king 130, 174,	Narasimhavarmā, a (
359, 402, 440	Nāraņa (Nārāyaņa) H
Nāga grāma, 324 (n), 325 (n)	Narasimha Deva I H
Nāgakumāra, 178	37, 274-279 (n)
Nāgaloka, 537, 561	Narasimha Deva, II,
Nāgamma, 85, 171	Narasimha Adhīndra
Nagar, 520	see Vīra Narasim
Nāgarakhaṇḍa, 254 (n)	283
Nagar tāluka, 224	Narasimhatirtha, a Va
Nāgas, the, 60	433
Nāgaśarmā, 70	Narasinga Angaḍi, se
Nagenna, 72	Narasingan-Dugarāja
Nāļa (Nāla), 301, 302	252, 253
Nalini, the 42, 42 (n)	Narasinga Heggade, 1
Nalkes, the, 370	Narasinga, king, 253
Nallūru, 410, 413, 414	Nārāyaṇa, author, 420
Nānā Deśis, the 334	Nārāyaņy Kāranta, 3
Nandagiri, 233 (n)	Nārāyaņa Mayya, 337
Nandārabeţţu, principality, 534	Nārāyaņa Rangoji, 53
Nalimaņi Nāga Dīksara Sāgara, 87, 171	Nārāyanatīrtha, a Va 420, 439
Nālkūru, 309	Narena Inā (Jjhana?
Nalvattanādu, 304	Narendra, 314
Nanda Kamba, 85, 88	Narendra Kirti Deva
Nandi, 449 (n)	Narmadā, the, 191, 1
Nandinī, the, 42 (n)	Nāsik, 25, 26, 34
Nandipotavarmā, king, 208,	Nasratganj, 335
208 (n), 209, 209 (n), 210	Natas, the, 376 (n)
Nandivarmā II Pallavamalla,	Navalaksa Dahala Ti
king, 208, 210 (n)	Nāyar people, the, 2

(n) (n) 9 Vaisnava guru, 31 (n), 434 R., scholar, 8 (n), 456 a, 181 , a Cola ruler, 18 a) Holla, 336 I Hovsala, king, II, king, 281 ndra Deva, king, asimhadeva III, a Vaisņava guru, i, see Jamalābad rāja, prince, de, 127, 128 253 (n) , 426 a, 338 337 i, 530, 559 Vaisnava guru, na?) Deva, 120 Deva, 415 (n) 1, 198 1) a Tripurī, 392 Nāyar people, the, 299, 299 (n)

Neduñjceliyan (Neduñjeliyan II), king, 214, 215, 215 (n) Nelli, 478 Nellikāru, 153, 154 Nelliñie, 503, 506 Nellivādi, 113, 116 Nellore district, 207 Netrāvati, the, 42 (n), 46, 55, 299, 425 Nīca, a bhūta, 369 Nīca (Sabara), 313 Nigrodha Kumāra, 321 Nilakantha Sastri, scholar, 215 (n), 216 (n), 217 (n), 363 (n) Nilāvara (Niruvāra) 125, 126. 127 (n), 130, 139, 179 (n), 180, 282, 287, 302, 380, 402, 440 Nîrenki, 523 Nirgundanād, 292 Nirmala Muni Guru, 391 (n) Nirmand Brahmans, 22 Nīrumārga (Nīrmārga) 301 Nilādri, 273 Nītimārga, king 253 (n) Nitrias, the 55 (n) Niţţūru, 299 (n) Nagercoil, 25 (n) Nolamba, 35, 111 (n) Nolambas, the 230 (n) Nolamba Narasinga Deva, king, 229, 230, 232 Nolambarāditya, chieftain, 223, 223 (n) Nolambavādi, 32,000, 114 (n), 157, 230 North Arcot district, 395, 396 (n) Nṛgavarmā, king, 329 (n) Nrpa'Kāma Hoysala, king, 278 Nrpamallarāja, king, 252, 253

Nundolal Dey, scholar, 430 (n)

Nürmmadi Cakravartin, king, 123, 124, 125, 142

O

Ödabhāndeśvara, 421, 422 Öddamadeva, 127, 128, 360 Oddama Devī, queen, 93, 388 Ollaiyūr, 367 (n) Ollaiyur-tanda Bhūtap Pāndivin, prince, 367 (n) Oloikhora, see Ālvakheda Ōmarjūru, 259, 300 Ondār, 508 Orissa, 22 Oxyrhynchus, 54

P

Padalaivan, 112, 113 (n), 116, 118 Padapanambūru, 508, 509 Paddyala, 580 Padebettu, 134, 136, 166 Pādi, 301 Padirāļu, 351 Padmanābhatīrtha, a Vaisnava guru, 421, 426, 430, 441 Padmanābha Ācārya, scholar, 430, 431, 435 (n) Padmapādācārya, a Śaiva guru. 454, 455, 456 Padmatirtha, an Advaita teacher, 424 Padumala Devi, 259 Padubidre, 353 (n) Padūra, 125, 129 Pailana-baļi, 234, 236, 242 Paiyyūriļangottam, 208 Pājakaksetra, 416, 432 Pajjera, 164 Palasige 12,000, 262 (n) Pāteya Deva, king, 229.

INDEX 647

Parna-Sabaras, the, 351 (n)	Poļalu, no
Parpara (Barbara), 326 (n)	406 (n)
Pāsāņa, 12	Polippu, 4
Pāsaņdhas, the, 405	Pombadas
Paśukońkana, 29	Pombucch
Pasupati, prince, 250	Humca,
Patāla, 46	75, 76,
Pātala Lankā, 40	112, 11
Pathak, scholar, 209 (n)	224, 225
Patiala, 335 (n)	24 0, 241
Pattadakal, 79 (n)	Pommaḍa
Pāvañje Guru Rao, 433 (n)	Pongada,
Payosni, the, 45, 46	Ponnedon
Payasvānī, Candragirī, the, 45,	Poona, 43
46, 419, 420	Pottika, 3
Payyayyi, 518	Povuļļunā
Payyo, 472, 472 (n)	Prabhācan
Peddore, the, 276	413
Peddūra, 520	Prabhūtav
Penzer, scholar, 298 (n)	66, 218-
Perggade, 203	Prācyas, t
Pergguñji, 221,	Pradhāna
Periyer Kadanjar, 461, 485, 546	Prāntya, a
Per-kāgāmāsi, 71	381, 413
	Pratāpa R
Permmāļu, 204 Permmānadi, 233 (n)	Pratipa, 1
Pugali Perumal, 398	Pravarapu
Pugan Feruman, 570	Prolarāja,
Perumals, the, 4 (n) Peru Perumunde, 531, 535	Privabano
	Devend
Pliny, 54 Pijetāya, see Trivikramācārya	Pṛthvī sāg
Pijetaya, see Tilvikiailladarya	157, 159
Pilicāmuņdi, a bhūta, 519	187, 233
Pilipañjar, 518	Przyluski
Piliyottu Parāri, 509 Pillai Swamikannu, scholar,	Ptolemy,
L IIIai,	61, 172
50 (n)	Pude, 30
Pires, author, 327 (n)	Pudukkō
Polokku Priyacelva, 88, 171	Pūjyapād
Polali Ammunnije, 6, 83-85, 99,	415 (n)
131, 133, 153, 381, 406 (n)	Pulastya,
131, 133, 133, 301, 700 (11)	· u.u.u.yu,

ot the same as Polali, 465 s, the, 370, 460, 462 ha, Pombulca, Ponvulca, , Patti, 65, 67, 68, 72, 78, 84, 89, 90, 90 (n), 18, 178, 184, 186, 187, 5, 234, 235, 235 (n), 236, 1, 243, 265, 386, 387 aya, 351, 375 497 ngadi, 487 3 (n) 321, 322, 323 ād, 487 ndra, a Jaina guru, 122. varsa Govinda III. king, -223 (n) the, 41 Arpa Heggade, 167 a quarter, 119, 120, 145, Rudra, king, 263 13 ura, 164 , General, 263 dhu, Priyabandhvarmā dra, king, 333 gara, king, 88, 89, 91, 92, 19, 160, 171, 176, 184, 185, 3, 249, 358, 387 i, scholar, 52 24, 54, 56, 56 (n), 58, 2, 200, 335 1 ittai, State, 244 lasvāmi, a Jaina guru, ya, sage, 404

INDEX

Puleyarma, 178, Ballāla, scholar, Rāghavendra Puliga, chief, 230 (n) 444 (n) Puligere (Laksmeśvar), 300, 207 Raghu, 13 Pulikeśin II, Satyāśraya king, Raghucandra Ballāla, 353 (n) 15, 58, 59, 68, 69, 76, 77, 78, Rainapunya Vallabha, 70, 165 79 (n), 82, 201, 202, 202 (n) Rājādi-Kan-Rājādi-Bellatūru, Pulinda, 313 vāna, 309 Puliyur, 215 Rājaditva Rāja Paramešvara, king, Punascandra, 12 220-223 Pulumāvi Gotamiputra Šatakarni. Kulottunga Rāja Kesarivarmā king, 199 Cola Deva, king, 214 Punisa, General, 273 Rāja Rāja Coļa, king, 211 Punnāta, 51 Rājasimha, Ranarāga, king, Purāl, 522, 541 201 (n) Purandhara (hill), 246 Rajatapītha, see also Udipi, 417, Purandhara Rāya, a Kadamba 418, 421, 422, 424, 429, 435 king, 451 (n), 452 (n) Rajendra Cola, king, 16 Raigir, 41 (n) Purrhus, see Mons Pyrrhus Puruśottamatirtha. see Acvuta-Raiputs, the, 8 (n) preksa Ācārva Rakkasa Ganga, king, 229-230(n) Pūrvagrāma, 394 Rakkhita, Thera, 51 (n) Puspagiri, in Tuluva, 43, 45 Ramachandra, Bhatta, 87 Puspagiri in the Cuddappah dist-Rāmacandra Sarasvati Odevar, a rict, 43 (n), 399 Smārtha guru, 453 Rāmachandra, Yādava king, 265, Putrabāva, 509 Puttige, 47 (n), 124, 125, 181, 402 436, 436 (n) Puttur near Udipi, 21, 379, 380, Rāmānujācārva, reformer, 273, 409, 442, 451 (n) 451 (n) Puttur tāluka, 223(n), 252, 294(n), Rama Rao, Benegal, scholar, 429 371 (n), 430 (n)Rama Rao (of Mysore), scholar, Puttur town, 377 121 (n), 250, 251 (n) R Rāmatīrtha, a Vaisņava Guru, 433 Rācmalla I, king, 25? (n) Ramesvaram, 190, 194, 420 Rācmalla II, king, 253 (n) Rāmeśvaratīrtha, 222 Rācmalla III, Narsinga Rācmalla, Rāminjūru (Rāminja, Rājakunja), king, 253 (n) 301 Rācamallan-Dugarāja, king, 252, Ramnad district, 248

> Ramnagar, 335 Raṇadhāri, 90 (n), 170

Raņakeśin, king, 228

253

Rādhā, 442 Rādhā, 394

Ranaketu, 111 (n) Ranaghata, 456 Raņasāgara, king, 83-89, 91, 92, 93, 156, 171, 176, 177, 381 (n), 382 (n), 386 Rāṇavagga Bīra, 286 Raņavikramanātha, 176 Rangachari (Rangacharyva), scholar, 87 (n), 288 (n) Ranga Rāya, king, 457 Rano Cutu Kadanamdasa, king, 198 Rano Mudānamdasa, 198 Rashid-ud Din, 226 Rāstrakūtas, the, 92, 203, 204 (n), 217, 219, 220 Ratnägiri, 37, 38 (n), 56 (n) Rattiga, 211 Rāunragrāma, 111 (n) Ravana, 39 Rāvanakān, 286. Ravivarmā, king, 329 (n) Rāyamurāri Sovi Deva, king 18 Rāya Pāṇdya, a Santara chief, 101 (n) Rāya Tailapa Deva, a Santara king, 114 (n) Reņukā, Reņuki 10, 20, 21, 31, 32, 33, 44 Revati Dvīpa, 37, 201 Rice, Lewis, scholar, 17 (n), 24 (n), 33, 40, 51 (n), 59, 62, 62 (n), 74, 76, 79 (n), 111 (n), 165 (n), 180 (n), 201, 201 (n), (n), 208 (n), 222, 223, 206 223 (n), 235 (n), 228, 232 (n), 235, 237, 238, 246 (n), 254 (n), 255 (n), 257 (n), 258 (n), 264, 266 (n), 272 (n), 273, 280 (n), 281 (n), 285 (n), 327 (n), 332, 333, 436 (n), 450 (n), 455 (n)

Rohilkand, 335 Fşabha, king, 404-406 Fsikulyā, 41 Rudra Mahā Devī, queen, 392, 393, 394 Rudra Sivācārya, 397 (n) Rukku Ballāļa, 504, 515, 563

S

Sābanna Odeyar, 453 Sabaras, the, 312, 313 Sedaiyan Koccadaiyan Ranadhira, king, 215, 216, 218, 219, 221, 223, 364 Sadbhava Sambhu, 392-394 (n), 396 Sadbhava-Siva, 393 (n) Säer, 168, 188 Sāgara, 20, 24, 267 Sāgar hobli, 112 Sagar tāluka, 285, 286, 365, 452 Saguri Kurjata, 340 Sahasrabāhu Arjuna, see Kārtavīrva Sahvādri Sahva. mountains, (Simhādri), 12, 13, 24, 26, 29, 41, 46, 46 (n), 197, 198, 199, 214, 305 Saivācārvas, the, 396 (n) Saivalaa, the, 40 Saivites, the, 305, 379 (n), 381, 450 (n) Saka-dvîpa, 41, 42 (n) Sakha Kumāra, 321, 322 Sankiya Sāhani, General, 286 Sakti Sambhu, 394, 396 Salem, district, 53 Sāligrāma, 377 (n) Salikeyara, 284 Sālivoge, 70, 71, 72, 185, 187

INDEX

Salivur, 214 Sāluvas, the, 213 Sālva Malla, king, 365 Sāma Āļva, 154 (n), 469, 470, 479, 480, 488, 489, 493, 501, 516, 524, 526 (n), 548-555, 569 Samantaparcaka, 10 Sāmbhavī, the 42 (n) Sambu Kalkuda, 490, 494, 521, 556, 566-7 Samudra Pāṇdya, 361-363 (n)	Sapta Kotīśvara, 26, 27 Śaradi, the, 305 Śarabhanga, 12 Sārangapāṇi, Yādava prince, 437 Sarapoli Sararsīme, 518 Sārasvata, Sarsut, Brahmans, 22 Śarāvatī, the, 46 Sāreya Bhirava Nāyaka, 255-257 Saridanta, a chief, 425
Samudra Faṇḍya, 301-303 (n) Sandavarada, 1/6 Sāndima, Saṅdima, Cāndimat, Sāntimant, Sāntimaṅta, Sānti, 16 Saneśvara, see Baindūru, 349 Saṅgham, 48, 49, 50, 51, 54, 244 Sangītapura, 365 Saṅje Maṅje, 506, 564 Sankamale, 262, 488, 515, 568 Sankarācārya, Gauḍapāda, reformer, 343, 343 (n), 344 (n), 384, 418, 453, 454, 455, 457 Saṅkarā-devī, 153 Sankaragaṇa, king, 201	Saruvigosasiga, 178 Sarvvandu (Sarvabandhu), 178 Sāstāvu, village, 377 (n) Sāsti, 325 (n) Sātakkā, 452 Sātavāhanas, Sātarkarņis, the, 52, 53, 196, 197, 197 (n), 199, 200 Satiyaputa (Satyaputra), 47, 48, 50, 51, 52, 374, 374 (n), 375 (n) Sattanātha Sivācārya, 396 (n) Sattiga (Satyāśraya), king, 204(n) Sātvatas, the, 48, 52, 53, 196, 199 Satyabhūmi, 47, 48, 48 (n), 51, 53 Satyatīrtha, a Vaisņava guru, 421, 422, 423
Sankara Hande, 338 Sankaranārāyana, 21, 45, 305 Sankara Odeyar, 337, 339 Sankaraśarmā, 70 Sanku, 529 Santalige Thousand, 97, 224, 228, 231, 232, 264 Sāntara, 65, 76, 93, 224, 225 (n), 264 Sāntaras, the, 145, 156, 224, 227, 228, 230 (n), 233, 237, 238, 239, 242, 244, 256, 257, 265, 266, 412, 415 Sānta Śiva, 399	Satyavākya Kongunivarmā Dharma Mahārāja, king, 233 (n) Satyavatī, 348 Saumyavīra Pāndya, prince, 348 Saurāstra, 263 Savalandādka, 478 Sāvanta, prince, 306, 349, 351 Savantavādi, State, 37 Sāvāsis, the, 164 Sāvimale, 269, 269 (n) Sāyana Baidya, 470, 496, 498, 507, 510, 529, 250, 553, 557, 559, 560, 566, 571, 572, 577
Sapta Konkanas, 24, 27-32, 34-35 (n), 36, 38, 39, 58, 407	Sāyana Baidyedi, 560 Sehoa, 45 (n)

Sellevāļvas, the, 62
Senabova Devanna, 181, 182
Senavadi, 178
Senavarasa, 78 (n), 79 (n), 168
Senavāra Arkkesari, king, 79 (n)
Senavarasa, ruler, 207
Sendan or Jayantavarman, king,
215 (n), 216 (n),
Sendrakas, the, 251
Śendraka-visaya, 251
Senguttuvan, king 49, 50
Setti Gāvuņda, 270
Settis, the, 467, 549
Setu (Setuvinabīdu), 235, 267,
268, 268 (n)
Setutila, Kadtala, 441
Seven Gaudas, 36
Seven Kalingas, 37
Seven Kombu, 37, 97, 212, 214
Seven Male, 31, 36, 97, 212, 214
Shimoga, 453 (n)
Shimoga district, 112, 198, 365
Sībi, king, 297
Siddhānta Deva, 415 (n)
Siddhapuşkarāņī, 20
Siddheśvaravarmā, prince, 348
Sikhiketu, prince 347
Sikhivarmā or Mayūrvarmā, king 300
Simhaṇa, king 257, 437
Sindabur 226
Singadatta, 176
Singana Sāhani, 136, 137
Singeya Dannāyaka, 362-364
Singi Deva, a Santara king,
114 (n), 116, 229
Singideva, General, 112, 118
Sinkiri Suni, 481
Sirāḍi, 575 (n)
Siriyādi, (Siripādi) 302
Sirśi (Sirise), 258, 285, 286, 292

Sirtādi, 153 Sirūr, 2 Sisugali, 32 Sīta, the, 41, 42 (n), 299 Sitale, 8, (n) Siva Devi, 348, Sivalli, Sivabelli, Sivabelki, 82, 90 (n), 178, 189, 190, 302, 339, 350, 354, 387, 387 (n), 417, 457 (n) Sivamāra, king, 220 Sivānanda Yogi, 107 Sivarmā (Sivavarmā), 347 Skandapura see Talapādi, 299 Smārthas (Bhāgavatas) the, 449-455, 457, 457 (n) Sobhanabhatta, see Padmanābhatīrtha, a Vaisņava guru Sohrab tāluka, 20, 62, 69, 72, 165, 220, 258 Solomon, king, 371 (n) Soma, king, 18, 329 Somala Devi, princess, 241 Soma Sambhu, 393, 393 (n), 394, 394 (n), 396 Someśvara Deva, king, 206, 255, 260 Sovanna Senabova, 136 Ballahadeva, chieftain, Sovi 265 (n) Soyi Deva, king, 254, 254 (n), 328 Soyideva (Soyirāya) Alupendradeva, king, 134-136, 138-140, 150, 166, 169, 175, 184, 191, 283, 403, 440 Srā(i)dharanātha, 137, 170 Srāvakas, the, 414 Śravaņa Belgoļa, 408, 410 Sri-Bärakanūr, 225, 226 Srībūdu, 106 (n)

Sridhara Bhatta, 30 Srīdharasvāmi, a Smārtha guru, 457 Srī-Kālāditvan, 81, 170 Srīkīrti Bhattāraka, 415 (n) Srīmantūru), (Sīmantūru), 302 Srīmat Āluvarasar, (Āļvarasar), 81, 82, 159, 170, 385 Srinivasacarva, 433 (n) Srinivasa Rao, (Madras Government Epigraphist), 157 Sripādi, 301 Srīpurusa Prthvi kongunivrddha, king, 15, 16, 230, 253 (n) Srīrangam, 420 Sri Sāji Rāņa, 164 Srīśarmā Somavāji, 71 Srī Siyagellarasa, 111 (n) Srīyūți Rāņa, 164 Srutamuni, 415 (n) Stambha, Kambha, Sauca Kambha Deva, Ranāvaloka, king, 222 Sthānikas (Goravaru), the, 80, 80 (n), 90 (n), 385, 386 Sturrock, 3, 4, 54 (n), 361 (n) 372 (n), 373 (n), 428, 457 (n)Subrahmanya, 21, 43, 370, 416(n), 418, 423, 423 (n), 575 (n) Subrahmanya Aiyar, (Madras Government Epigraphist) 124(n), 141, 154 (n), 243, 289 Sūdraka, 14, 85, 100, 171 Südras, the, 312 Sugrīva, 357 Sujeru, 131, 133, 174 Sukha, 457 Suktī, the, 304 Suktimatī, the, 2, 42 (n), 45 (n), 299, 310

Sukumārī, the, 41-42 (n) Sulikal Kadañjar, 461, 482, 534 Sulya, 377 Summuni, 481 Sūna Jana Nāvaka, 481 Sunda, 325 Surabhi, 20 Sūrala (mod. Surālu), 107, 370, 377 (n) Sūrala Tolaha, 107 Surāstra, 27, 28, 29 Surat, 38, 456, 483 Sureśvarācārva, a Śaiva guru, 453 Surpāraka, 11, 12, 26, 27 Suśīla, queen, 297, 341 Susenavadi, 178 Sutlej, 22 Suvarnā, the, 47 (n), 79 Svarnagosasi, 178 Sveta-dvipa, 46 Svetavāhana, king, 83, 87, 87 (n), 88, 89, 92, 93, 159, 249, 386

T

Tagalūr, 111 (n) Taila II, king, 204 (n) Taila III, king, 262 (n) Deva, Tailapa chieftain Candavūru, 258 (n) Tailapa Deva, Sāntara king, 228, 229, 231 Takkasīla (Taksašīla), 321 Talakād, 269, 273, 453-456 Talapāḍi (Kandāvara, Skandapura), 302 Talavāra, chieftains, 306. Talepāditāya, 308 Tāļetāya, 305 Tālgunda (Sthāngūdha), Tānaguṇḍa, 251, 327, 327(n), 331-334 Taligenād, 362

Tambu Marakala, 518 Tamilagam, 48, 452 (n) Tammarasa, chieftain, 265, 266 Tāmraparṇa, country, 40 Tāmraparṇī, the, 44 Tangoḍi, 4.8 Tārgoḍu, 21 Tanjore district, 397	Kānteśvara, 183, 282, 293 Kōlālammā, 20 Konarak, 22 Kōteśvara, 89, 125, 127, 181, 558, 559 Kōtiśvara, 136 Kṛṣṇa, 416 (n)
Tāpi, the 46 (n) Tarapāḍi guttu, 509 Tāre-guḍḍe, 137 Teji Bhaṭṭayya, 338	Kundeśvara, 125, 128, 181 Laksmīnārāyaṇa, 391 (n) Laksmivarāhasvāmi, 398 Madanādipati, 424 Madananteśvara (Venkaṭa-
Tellaru, 208 Telugu land, Telingana, 48 (n), 211, 452 Temple, scholar, 373 (n)	ramaṇa), 262 Mahādeva, 152, 294 (n) Mahālingeśvara, 83, 86, 108, 119, 120, 124, 125, 126, 129,
Temple of— Amṛtanātha Deva, 259 Amṛteśvara, 259 Anantapadmanābhasvāmi, 134, 137 Ananteśvara, Ananteśa, 106 (n), 155, 299, 305, 377, 379 (n), 384, 417, 447, 449, 449 (n) Badiringa (Badarinātha?), 559 Bṛhadāmbikā, 395 Cakrapāṇi, 141, 142, 143 Caṭṭīśvara, 213 Durgā Bhagavatī, 21, 139, 172, 28, 403, 451 Durgā Parameśvarī, 6, 7, 83, 85, 86, 98, 145, 225, 259 Gaṇapati, 258 Gauri, 119, 120, 145, 147, 407, 413 Gollara Gaṇapati, 61, 131, 133 Gubbukōṇe Gopālakṛṣṇa, 283, 289, 309	130, 137, 139, 1.0, 252, 360, 3.9 (n) Maheśvara, 535 Mahiśāsuramardhini, 125, 126, 127, 130, 180, 282, 287 Mar̃junātha, 131, 133 Mūlasthānadeva, 399(n), 400(n) Nakhareśvara, 119 Narasimha, 204 (n), 260 Nīlalantheśvara, 454 Nīlgunda, 164 Nīradevālaya, 132 (n) Pancalingeśvara, 109, 110, 114, 115, 163, 1.4, 206, 233, 359 Pāṇḍyeśvara, 141, 142 Paraśu, 20 Prāṇeśvara, 251 Sambhukallu (Bhairava), 63, 79-81, 83-90 (n), 101, 175-178, 185, 186, 238, 382(n), 385 Sankaranārāyana, 377 Siddheśvara, 112, 114, 114 (n), 117, 204 (n), 263
Iśvara, 452	Somanātha (Somanātheśvara), 134, 135, 101, 337, 414

Tirukodugunru alias Daksina Kailāsa, 308 Tirumakūdlu-Narsīpura tāluka, 454 Tirumalainādu, 398, 399 Tirumarkkada, 216 (n) Tirupati, 104, 106 (n), 483 Tiruparankunram, 399 (n) Tiruvailu, 259 Trivambaka, 26 Tuļu people, Tuļuvas, Tuļuvars, 3-5, 8, 9, 40, 41, 54, 176, 205, 215, 274, 286, 309, 352, 368, 371, 372 (n), 373 (n), 381, 389, 459, 460, 460 (n), 472, 473, 480, 482, 488, 489, 491, 495, 502, 504, 506, 507, 517, 532, 537, 538,	Tinnevelly district, 39/ Tīrthahaļļi, 20, 24, 453 Tīrthahaļļi tāluka, 455, 456 Tīrthamuttūra, 453, 455 Tīrthamkara, 405 Tīrthamkara, 405 Tirujrānasambandhar, Jrānasambandhar, Piļļe Nāyanār, 216 (n), 217 (n) Tirukodugunru alias Daksina Kailāsa, 308 Tirumakūdļu-Narsīpura tāluka, 454 Tirumalainādu, 398, 399	Tulu people, Tuluvas, Tuluvars, 3-5, 8, 9, 40, 41, 54, 176, 205, 215, 274, 286, 309, 352, 368, 371, 372 (n), 373 (n), 384, 389, 459, 460, 460 (n), 472, 473, 480, 482
--	---	---

Tuluva, Tulu district, Tulunādu, Tuluvisaya, passim Tulumbhan Perumal, 3, 4 Tuluva Brahmans, 324, 342, 407 Tuluva Candiga, 204 Tuluvalapura, 276 (n) Tuluva--Rājendrapuram, 280 (n) Tuluva (Tulu) rājya, 2, 175 Tuluva Vellāļers, 213, 214, 371(n) Tumbe, 518, 519 Tumkur district, 223 (n) Tuṇḍākavisaya, 209 (n) Tungā, the 46, 47 (n), 427 Tungabhadrā, the, 47, 222 Tungaprasta, 45 Tuppekallāvu, 515 Tuyya, 225

U

Ubār (Uppinangadi), 425, 521 Ubaradkā Muttūru, 377 Ucchangi, 32 Ucchangi Pāndva family, 157, 244, 245, 247 Udāka, 208 (n) Udayāditya Pāņdya Pattigadeva, king, 98, 99, 100, 101, 101 (n), 122, 138, 139, 161 (n), 205, 214, 358 Udayādityarasa, Hoysala prince,

Udayapura Nāyga (Nāyaka), 176 Udayāvara, Udipura, Odevura, Udayapura, 6, 62-64 (n), 66, 67, 78-80 (n)-92, 101, 154 (n), 167, 171-173, 175-178, 184-187, 224, 227-228, 249, 347 (n), 351, 381, 385-387, 400, 412 Uddandabottu, 530, 532 Uddara (Uddala), 464, 545

Udipi tāluka, 21, 63, 83, 86, 101, 102, 105, 119, 124, 125, 127, 129, 130, 134, 136, 139, 140, 174, 180, 282, 283, 287-290, 336, 338, 340. 370, 377, 377 (n), 379, 380, 402. 406 (n), 440 Udipi, Odipu, Udipu, town, 6, 21, 21 (n), 40, 42-44, 96 (n), 102, 106 (n), 131, 137, 154 (n), 155, 299 (n), 307, 340, 355, 377, 379 (n), 380 (n), 384, 412, 416, 416 (n), 417, 418, 422-423 (n), 425, 426 (n), 428, 429 (n), 432 (n), 433, 433 (n), 435, 443, 444 (n), 447, 451 Udupa, 305 Ugrapperuvuludi, king, 48 Ugra-vamśa, 235, 236, 242-243(n) Ujjain, 206, 348, 352, 357 Ujjavanta, 45 Ujjre (Ujjari, Ujjare), 301, 308, 310 (n), 312, 313 Ulavattu, 518 Ullāļa, 43 (n), 408, 522 Ulpādi, 320 Ulūpi, Ulūpe, 43 (n) Upadhye, A. N., scholar, 415 (n) Upendratīrtha, a Vaisņava guru, 422, 433 Uppāraņa, 305 Upper Kañci, 483 Uppinakuduru, 17, n. Uppūru, 79, 101, 530 Uruttirasamman, author, 48 Uttama Pāṇḍya, 248-9 Uttara Pañcāla, 335 Utūlus, the, 40

Vādighangaļa Bhatta, 30 Vādirāja, Vaisnava guru, 416 (n)

Vādisimha! 418 Vāgīśa, Tiruvāgīśa, 217 (n) Vaidyanātha, see Muņdipādītāya, a bhūta, 537 Vaijavanti, 56, 60, 66, 68, 70 Vaikuntha, 565 Vaindainagara, 37 Vaišampāvana, 14 Vaisesikas, the, 442 Vaispavism, 273, 318, 411, 442, 448 Vaisnavites, the, 305, 345, 379(n), 443, 450 (n) Vaitataņī, the, 25 Vakketars, the, 460, 568 Valabhi,)324 (n), 325 (n) Valakanka, 17 (n), 40, 40 (n) Vāmadeva Ļsi, 445, 446 Vāmanatīrtha, a Vaisnava guru, 433 Vāmanjūru Rāmanatha, 306 Vañji, 50: Vannapa (Annapa?) Bhandarī, 559, 570 Vārakūla see also Bālakuru, 297, 341, 348 Varalatta, 28 Varanga, 100, 119, 121, 134, 138, .412, 413, 414 Varāta-deśa-Varahāta, 30, 263 Vankādi, Orkādi, 301 Vasanta Kīrti Rāvuļa, a gunu, 243, 243 (n), 415 Vasa Siddala Devi, queen, 241 Vasu, legendary, king, 297 Vessu Dexa, 120 Vāsudeva Hoļļa, 336 Vasudeva Mayya, 337 Vāsudeva Mudali, 289 Vatani (Badami), 77, 244 Veda Pāda Parvata, 46

Vedavatī, 417 Velangapundi (Velagapudi), 392 Vellālers, Tuļuva, 54 Venkața, country, 405 Venkatadāsa, Ācārva, scholar. 96 (n), 426 (n), 432 (n), 433 (n) Venkata Ramanayya, schoiar, 284 (n), 285 (n), 292 (n) Venkayya, scholar, 217 (n) Venkoba Rao (Madras Government Epigraphist), 59, 61, 62, 64, 93, 122(n), 147, 147(n), 234, 244, 248, 367 (n), 384 (n) Venkoba Rao, B. (of Mysore), scholar, 438 (n), 439 (n) Veņukā, the, 42 (n) Veņūru, Yenūru, 110, 111, 459, 468, 520, 521, 567 Vibudhavasu Alupa, king, 54 (n), 123, 124, 125, 314, 317, 345, 440 Vidyāranya Svāmi, a Saiva guru. 430, 4.2 (n) Vidyāśankara, a Śaiva teacer, 419, 420, 420 (n), 424, 451 (n), 452 (n) Vidyutjimha, prince, 349 Vija-arasa, a chief, 251 Vijaņa Nāyga, 86, 185, 238 Vijayadeva Alupendra, king, 91, 92, 160, 170 Vijavāditya Māramma, Ālupa king, 83, 89, 90 (n), 91, 178, 184, 186, 190, 219, 249, 358, 387 Vijayāditya Satyāśraya, king, 208-209, 210, 210 (n) Vijayāditya, a Sāntara king, 34 Vijayadurya, 56 (n) Vijayakīrți, a Jaina guru, 223 (n)

Vijayanagara, city, 293 (n), 293,

356, 574

Ksamāpāla,

Vīra Ballāļa Deva II (Baļļu), king Vijavanagara (dvnasty), 19, 145, 35, 182, 276, 279, 280, 281 153, 170, 175, 180, 191, 282, 288 (n), 290, 291, 294, 309, 365 Vēra Ballāļa III, king, 139, 282-Vijanayagara Empire, 140, 292, 286 (n), 288-293, 361, 362 Bhairava chief 242, 243, 243 (n) 415 Vijaya Pāṇḍya Deva, king, 35 Vijayapura, another name for Vira Bhūpa (Bhūpati) prince, 346, Ahicchatra, 333 346 (n) Vijava Vidyā Deva Rāya, 455 (n) Vīra Bhūpāla, 122 Vira Bhūpati Odevar, Viceroy Vinayāditya, king, 344 (n) Viñja Praharabhūsaņa, 87, 386 346 (n) Vira Camparasa Odevar, chief-Vijava Nāvaka, 337-338, tain, 294 (n) 254. Vikramāditva, General, Vīra Jagadevarasa (Santara), 234, 254 (n), 255 235, 236, 238, 239, 239 (n), 241, Vikramāditva Varaguņa, a chief, 242, 269, 271, 272, 272 (n), 273 Vikramāditva, king of Ujjain, Vīra Kulāśekhara, (II), king, 357 139, 140, 380, 403 Vikramāditva I Raņarasika, king. Vīra Mahādevī, princess, 229, 230 69, 77, 78, 79 (n), 82 Vikramāditya II, king, 208. Vira Masana, 362 208 (n), 209, 209 (n), 210 Vīra Narasīmha II, 19, 35 Vīra Narasimhadeva III, Vikramāditya IV, king, 204 (n) 283, 284 Vikramāditya VI, Tribhuvanamalla, II, Vikramānka, Vikra-Vira Nolamba, king, 37 mārka, 17, 17 (n), 32, 35, 204, 205, 206, 260, 348, 349, 352, 357, 358 Vikrama Šāntara, king 114 (n) 349, 352 Viļārittaļivarasa, prince. 252, 253 Vimalāditya, king, 93 Vimala Šiva (Bhimala Šambhu),

Virapaiya, 366 Vira Pāndya, king of Kārkaļa, 147 (n), 243 Vira Pāṇḍya, a legendary prince, Vira Pändya, II, king of the south, 362, 363, 363 (n) Pāṇdya Deva, (I) Alupa king, 394, 397, 399 107, 121, 125, 126, **127, 129,** 149, 162, 163, 167, 479, 181. Vimala Sūri Bhaţţāraka, 415 (n), 182, 261, 263, 359, 360, 380, Vinayāditya Hoysala Deva, king, 246, 268, 269 (n), 280 (n) 402, 440 Vinayaditya Satyāśraya, king, 15, Vira Pāṇḍyadeva, (II) Ālupa 17, 59, 66, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, king, 290-292, 403 78, 82, 84, 92, 159, 185, 186, Vīra Pāņdyadeva III, **Ālupa ķing.** 202, 210 145-147 (n), 152